

Scaffolding teacher learning: Examining teacher practice and the professional development process of teachers with culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) learners.

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Table of contents

Whakatauki

Acknowledgements

Abstract

Chapter 1: Setting the context

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Setting the scene: Why focus on culturally and linguistically diverse learners?
- 1.3 What is effective teaching practice for all students?
- 1.4 What is effective teaching practice for CLD students?
 - 1.4.1 To teach you I must know you: Thinking about culture
 - 1.4.2 Thinking about language
 - 1.4.3 Thinking about effective teaching strategies and approaches
- 1.5 Scaffolding learning for students: A critical concept
- 1.6 Shaping teacher knowledge: The process of professional development and learning
 - 1.6.1 Scaffolding learning for teachers
 - 1.6.2 Shaping teacher beliefs
- 1.7 Significance of the research and research questions

Chapter 2: Methodology

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Qualitative Research
 - 2.2.1 Action Research
- 2.3 Research Design - phase 1, phase 2, phase 3, phase 4
- 2.4 Setting and Participants
 - North School – Jane
 - South School - Bella
- 2.5 Researcher position and perspectives
- 2.6 Sources of data

- 2.6.1 Introduction
- 2.6.2 Enquiring - Asking questions
 - Semi-structured interviews
 - Unstructured interviews
- 2.6.3 A hypothetical classroom vignette
- 2.6.4 Experiencing - Being there
 - In-class modelling
 - Observations of teaching
 - The teachers' observation framework: Language and culture (ToF:LaC)
- 2.6.5 Examining the evidence: Documents
- 2.7 Data analysis
- 2.8 Researcher perspectives

Chapter 3: Findings – Telling the story

3.1 To know you is to teach you - *How do teachers make sense of culturally diverse learners and what do they view as effective practice for these learners?*

- 3.1.1 Knowing the learner: Identifying and defining student diversity
- 3.1.2 Knowing the learner: Identifying student outcomes
- 3.1.3 Knowing the learner: Culturally responsive teaching
 - The physical classroom environment
 - The classroom languages environment
 - The classroom curriculum
- 3.1.4 Knowing the learner: teacher expectations and beliefs
- 3.1.5 Effective teaching strategies and approaches
 - What do teachers report as effective practice?
 - What do teachers' use in their practice?

3.2 The Value of Professional Development and Learning - *What do teachers value being exposed to in professional development and learning, with respect to culturally and linguistically diverse learners?*

- 3.2.1 Scaffolding teachers: The role of modelling in classrooms
- 3.2.2 Scaffolding teachers: The role of observation and feedback

- 3.2.3 Scaffolding teachers: The role of shared planning, including co-construction of model texts
- 3.2.4 Scaffolding teachers: The role of ‘the outside expert’
- 3.2.5 Opportunities for specific professional development in effective strategies and approaches for CLD learners. Where to next?

3.3 Learning from the experience - *How do teachers interpret professional learning into practice and how is my practice shaped by teacher responses?*

- 3.3.1 Learning from the experience: How teachers’ interpret the professional learning
- 3.3.2 Learning from the experience: The effect of the teachers’ responses on adviser practice

Chapter 4: Discussion and Conclusion

4.1 How did teachers make sense of culturally diverse learners and what do they view as effective practice for these learners?

- Knowing the learner: Clarity of identification and definition
- Knowing the learner: Clarity about student outcomes
- Knowing the learner: Using effective teaching strategies for CLD learners
- Knowing the learner: The use of cultural knowledge and language as a resource
- Knowing the learner: Curriculum integration

4.2 What did teachers value being exposed to in professional development and learning, with respect to culturally and linguistically diverse learners?

4.3 How did teachers interpret professional learning into practice and how was my practice shaped by teacher responses?

4.4 Implications and conclusions

References

Appendices

Appendix 1: An example of a letter seeking permission to work with the teachers.

Appendix 2: An example of a consent form from the teachers.

Appendix 3: Examples of the classroom modelling books

Appendix 4: The semi-structured interview questions

Appendix 5: The hypothetical classroom vignette

Appendix 6: The teachers' observation framework: Language and Culture (Draft)

Whakatauki

Ko te reo te tuakiri	Language is my identity
Ko te reo toku ahurei	Language is my uniqueness
Ko te reo te ora	Language is life

Ministry of Education (2007: p.18) *The New Zealand Curriculum for English-medium teaching and learning in years 1-13* Wellington, New Zealand: Learning Media

In order to teach you, I must know you. I pray for all of us the strength to teach our children what they must learn, and the humility and wisdom to learn from them so that we might better teach (Delpit 1995, p.183).

We must be the change we wish to see in the world – Mahatma Gandhi

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Abstract

Teachers work in complex and demanding times with an increasing number of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds (CLD) in classrooms. These students are over represented in statistics of under achievement. All teachers are teachers of academic language, and while no child is born with school language as a first language, for some students the match between home and school is more closely aligned than for other students. Teachers are expected to be culturally responsive, ensuring the languages and culture of students is visible in the classroom environment and the classroom curriculum.

Despite the increasing knowledge about the specific strategies and approaches that will most effectively support CLD students in classrooms, the teaching of CLD students within mainstream contexts remains far from ideal. Teachers need support to access the principles of effective teaching of CLD learners that are available, and importantly to transfer the knowledge into classroom practice.

Professional development and learning is linked to improved teacher practice and student learning outcomes. When teachers have opportunities to be engaged in successful elements of in-depth professional learning such as in-class modelling, observation and feedback, and co-construction of teaching and planning they are able to demonstrate improved pedagogical content knowledge. Their beliefs may also need to be challenged.

The study was conducted in two schools in a large city in New Zealand where I am employed as an ESOL and literacy adviser. Using an action research method I was able to examine how a professional development and learning process shaped my own knowledge and practice as well as teacher knowledge and practice.

The study fills a research space to gain insights into the effective professional learning processes that impact on teacher strategies and approaches with their CLD learners. A central tenet of this research is that teachers can improve their practice of teaching CLD students and they can specifically learn strategies and approaches that are considered effective for them.

Chapter 1: Setting the context

1.1 Introduction

In my role as an adviser to schools in ESOL¹ and literacy I have opportunities to observe teachers in their classrooms and to work alongside them in assessing, planning for and teaching culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) learners are those New Zealand born or migrant students who understand or use a language other than English. Despite having had compulsory courses in cultural awareness and multi-cultural teaching in pre-service education in our region for over 10 years, many teachers still find turning knowledge about teaching CLD learners into effective teaching practice rather difficult. Even when specialist ESOL teachers are working alongside mainstream colleagues in schools, or with increasing opportunities for TESOL² training and scholarships through the Ministry of Education, effective teaching of CLD students has not gained traction (Franken and McComish, 2003a; Kennedy and Dewar, 1997). The challenge is to achieve long-term and sustainable change in teachers' practices so that they are able to provide appropriate teaching environments and strategies which are effective in engaging culturally and linguistically diverse students in their class learning, and lead to improved learning outcomes. Professional development with a specific focus of CLD learners occupies a fraction of the current focus of professional development and few schools, school advisers³, or facilitators make this a focus of their work.

In this introductory chapter I have drawn from a range of theoretical fields of inquiry in order to consider the most effective practice in teaching culturally and linguistically diverse learners. First I will set the scene and establish the need for a focus on CLD learners. I will note research on key characteristics of quality, expert teachers for all students. In considering the specific needs of culturally and linguistically diverse learners I will outline what is important for teachers: teaching that is culturally

¹ English for speakers of other languages

² Teaching English for speakers of other languages

³ *Adviser* is used to name a person who delivers professional development or learning programmes to teachers. In some cases, they are contracted by the Ministry of Education specifically for this purpose.

responsive, teaching language, teaching using specific strategies and approaches and the role of scaffolding learning for students. I will then examine research literature in the field of teacher professional development, including a discussion of scaffolding learning for teachers and teacher expectations and beliefs. I will suggest that there is a need for effective teacher professional learning that enables teachers to shape their teaching skills specifically to this group of CLD learners. I will conclude with the significance of the research and determine the research questions that shape this thesis.

1.2 Setting the scene: Why focus on culturally and linguistically diverse learners?

Schools in Aotearoa/New Zealand reflect the diverse nature of our society, with school populations consisting of children from a variety of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. Culturally and linguistically diverse learners however, are not a homogenous group. These students include New Zealand-born students, new migrants, students from refugee backgrounds and international students. School statistics available from the Ministry of Education⁴ in July 2007 show that current domestic school rolls include 9.3 percent 'Pasifika' students, 8.2 percent 'Asian' students, 21.9 percent 'Māori' students and 58.3 percent New Zealand European students. These broad ethnicity groupings give some insight into the range of learners in New Zealand classrooms, although they fail to reflect the extraordinary diversity that is reflected within each group (Alton-Lee, 2005). The percentage of New Zealand European students continues to decrease each year and student numbers from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds increases. Thus, in recent years there has been a marked change in the demographic composition of Aotearoa/New Zealand (Ho, Holmes & Cooper, 2004; May, 2002). The potential for such a range of students raises questions about how the education system can manage this influx of cultural diversity (Haworth, 2005; Whyte, 2005). With large variances in their prior experiences, students bring a new dimension to the teaching requirements of many classrooms. Having students from diverse cultural and language backgrounds can no longer be considered exceptional or unusual. All teachers will encounter CLD students in their classrooms. Student diversity is now expected and 'normal'.

⁴ Student numbers as at 1 July, 2007.

Available from <http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/statistics/schooling>

Diversity or diverse has a contested meaning and means different things within different contexts in education. In the context of this thesis, I am using the general term of ‘diversity’ to be inclusive of race, ethnicity, residence status, language and religion. Other forms of diversity, such as gender, sexual orientation, gifted and talented or inclusive education are outside the central concern.

Recent reports and educational statistics portray a picture that suggest student diversity is one element impacting on literacy success and school success in Aotearoa/New Zealand (PISA, 2003; Wylie, Thompson, & Lythe, 2001). In a Ministry of Education Research Division report *Student Outcome Overview 2001-2005* findings from a range of national and international achievement data are reported. Evidence shows students who speak a language other than English at home have a weaker average performance than students who speak English at home. The report adds, “Given that the majority of ESOL⁵ students are in mainstream classrooms, this issue should be addressed widely across the curriculum” (Ministry of Education, 2006b, p. 26). An OECD report *Where Immigrant Students Succeed* (2006), compares the International Programme of Student Assessment (PISA) results from 30 countries in the OECD. This report also suggests that those students who speak a language other than the language of instruction at home perform significantly less well than students who do speak the language of instruction at home. Moreover, the achievement of second-generation children of immigrants is lower than the achievement of first-generation children of immigrants. In other words, the longer a new immigrant family stays in New Zealand, the *greater* the disparity of student achievement compared to native English speakers. Contrary to expectations, some children of migrants do *not* fare better over time. There are wide differences in achievement levels of diverse groups of students. Some are our best and brightest, but in order to reduce the numbers of CLD learners at the lower end of the achievement spectrum, we must have teachers that are skilled in best practice for teaching these learners.

⁵ ESOL is English for speakers of other languages. It is commonly used in schools as an acronym to refer to the group of culturally and linguistically diverse learners. It also refers to the type of support programme that would be developed to enhance the student’s English language learning.

In Aotearoa/New Zealand, it is important that teachers understand the notion of ‘cohort’ as a way of explaining CLD students’ patterns of progress. Using a ‘cohort’ means that teachers are able to establish an expectation for learning for CLD learners, based on knowledge of what is ‘typical’ progress and achievement for learners of the same age. Teachers need to accurately identify and assess CLD learners against their age cohort to access Ministry of Education funding for extra language provision. If teachers do not accurately identify or assess CLD students’ needs, students miss out on funding for which they are eligible.

With the demands of a wide range of student experiences and language fluency to be met on a daily basis, many mainstream classroom teachers remain ill-equipped to develop the cognitive academic language proficiency, or the multilingual potential of the diverse students in their care. Franken and McComish (2003a) suggest “teachers of non-English speaking students are challenged by the complexity of demands placed on them” (p.62). It is difficult for teachers to meet the needs of a whole class, while catering for the individual diversity of students within it (Timperley, Fung, Wilson & Barrar, 2006). Haworth (2005) in her classroom research noted that:

while non-English speaking background students lingered in the class teacher’s peripheral attention, it was difficult to foreground the needs of these students amidst the many other demands in their busy classes (p.32).

The increase in student diversity seems to mean that teaching has become more complex. The overwhelming challenge for teachers is to work simultaneously and effectively with groups of diverse learners (Alton-Lee, 2005). Teachers increasingly need to be able to plan for a wide range of English proficiency and language diversity. They need to be proficient at multi-level, group-focussed teaching (Alton-Lee, 2003). Glynn (2003) argues that in Aotearoa/New Zealand pre-service teacher educators and providers of continuing professional development “do not appear to have caught up fully with the implications of this diversification” (p.274).

Having high levels of knowledge about the specific language demands of each learning area is also critical. One intention expressed in the *New Zealand Curriculum* is that students need specific help from their teachers as they learn the specialist

vocabulary associated with each learning area, as well as how to read and understand its texts. In addition, students who are new learners of English “need explicit and extensive teaching of English vocabulary, word forms, sentence and text structure, and language uses” (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 16). There is also a considerable focus in *The New Zealand Curriculum* to encourage schools to meet the pace of social change, including student diversity. It sets out principles of ‘Inclusion’ and ‘Cultural diversity’ as foundations for curriculum decision-making. While schools are expected to align their curriculum design to *The New Zealand Curriculum*, they are also being encouraged to “shape their curriculum so that teaching and learning is meaningful and beneficial to their particular communities of students” (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 37). *The New Zealand Curriculum* can therefore provide an opportunity and a trigger for change in schools.

The debate is not just a debate for Aotearoa/New Zealand schools. For many students, classroom experiences are tempered by a ‘eurocentric’ lens so voices, histories, literacies and contributions of others, including those from culturally diverse backgrounds are perhaps silenced or ignored (Apple, 1996; Derman-Sparks, 1997). Ladson-Billings (1994), offers insight in the debate and suggests that when students do not see their own history, culture or background represented in the resources and curriculum that exists in classrooms they are unlikely to reach high levels of achievement. Countering dominant voices means creating conditions where all students participate in making meanings that are valid and valued (Garcia, 2002). There are important considerations if the dominant culture of a community is perpetuated in the texts read and curriculum delivered.

The issue is compounded by the fact that as student diversity increases, the teaching profession is becoming increasingly homogenous (Gibbs, 2003; Villegas & Lucas, 2002a). Given that many teachers are not from CLD backgrounds themselves, building connections between the child, their family and the school to provide the very best opportunities for learning may not be easy. Teachers will need to plan more deliberately to create the best physical and interpersonal environments for diverse learners (Cazden, 1988).

A key finding of a UK review into the attainment of culturally diverse students suggested the issue of under-performance among diverse groups has been given minimal research attention and that far more research is required (Parker-Jenkins, Hewitt, Brownhill & Sanders, 2004). Internationally or in New Zealand, only a few studies have focused on the classroom setting where culturally and linguistically diverse learners spend most of their teaching time (Haworth 2003). The need for an education system that is effective at meeting the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse families, in order to raise student achievement, will continue to increase.

1.3 What is effective teaching practice for all students?

It is what teachers actually do, ‘moment by moment’ in their classrooms that make a difference to student achievement (Ministry of Education, 2006a). Hattie (2003) suggests we should concentrate on teachers as the main contributor to variance in student achievement. He argues we can build a profile of an excellent, expert teacher and outlines a range of relevant teacher attributes. He identifies teachers’ content knowledge, that is knowledge of a particular subject area as one important factor. However, it is teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), the way knowledge is used in particular teaching situations, that is critical. For Hattie (2003) there are clearly identified differences between ‘experienced’ teachers and ‘expert’ teachers. These differences can be attributed to prototypic attributes of ‘expertise’ organised around five major dimensions that include: identifying the way teachers use their knowledge of teaching and learning, guiding learning through classroom interactions, monitoring learning and providing feedback, attending to affective attributes and influencing student outcomes (pp.10-15).

Brophy (2000) outlines twelve generic aspects of effective teaching that have emerged from research in classrooms. His principles of effective teaching include: a supportive classroom climate, opportunity to learn, curricular alignment, establishing learning orientations, coherent content, thoughtful discourse, practice and application activities, scaffolding students’ task engagement, strategy teaching, co-operative learning, goal-orientated assessment and achievement expectations. Brophy (2000) intended these generic aspects to be understood as mutually supportive components of a coherent approach. For him, the best teaching programmes feature a mixture of

instructional methods and learning activities and are adjusted to suit local contexts such as nations' school systems and students' cultures.

There is a similarity between the aspects identified by Brophy (2000) and by Alton-Lee (2003) in her *Quality Teaching for Diverse Students in Schooling: Best Evidence Synthesis*, an extensive synthesis of evidence for effective teaching. Alton-Lee (2003) also suggests quality teaching is a key influence on high quality outcomes for diverse learners. She is using 'diverse' in a wider way than that used in this thesis, but the implications are relevant. Alton-Lee (2003) identifies ten key teaching characteristics which are:

- Quality teaching is focused on student achievement (including social outcomes) and facilitates high standards of student outcomes for heterogeneous groups of students;
- Pedagogical practices enable classes and other learning groups to work as caring, inclusive and cohesive learning communities;
- Effective links are created between school and other cultural contexts in which students are socialised, to facilitate learning;
- Quality teaching is responsive to student learning processes;
- Opportunity to learn is effective and sufficient;
- Multiple task contexts support learning cycles;
- Curriculum goals, resources including ICT usage, task design, teaching and school practices are effectively aligned;
- Pedagogy scaffolds and provides appropriate feedback on students' task engagement;
- Pedagogy promotes learning orientations, student self-regulation, metacognitive strategies and thoughtful student discourse; and
- Teachers and students engage constructively in goal-oriented assessment (pp.vi-x).

The general principles outlined above by Hattie (2003), Brophy (2000) and Alton-Lee (2003) enable a clear focus on some generic, critical elements of being an effective teacher. Both Alton-Lee (2003) and Brophy (2000) reiterate that there is no single best method of teaching to achieve them. An optimal teaching programme features a mixture of instructional methods and learning activities, but keeps as a focus the skills that students can acquire with help from their teachers. Brophy (2000) acknowledges

the role of school systems and cultures within the aspects noted above, and Alton-Lee (2003) refers to the “increasing realisation of the central role of the cultural dimensions of classroom practice” (p. 32). It is important in this study to identify in greater detail any aspects of effective practice for teaching CLD learners that could be considered as *different* or *extra* to those generic aspects identified as effective for *all* students. These characteristics are important as a point of leverage to return to and examine as guidelines of teacher pedagogy and practice.

1.4 What is effective teaching practice for culturally and linguistically diverse students?

There are some specific messages to teachers in the research literature about effective teaching for CLD learners that should underpin their practice. In this section, I will focus on some elements that describe effective teaching practice for CLD learners and discuss in more detail: thinking about culture, thinking about language and thinking about the specific teaching strategies and approaches for CLD learners.

1.4.1 To teach you I must know you: Thinking about culture

Delpit (1995) states, “In order to teach you, I must know you” (p.183). For teachers to be effective in making ‘moment by moment’ decisions they need “an extensive and continually developing knowledge of the learners they teach” (Ministry of Education, 2006a, p.48). Accordingly, it is important that a CLD learner entering school is valued for the repertoire of prior knowledge, skills, experiences, culture, and thinking that all learners have on arrival at school. An effective classroom teacher requires the generic knowledge and expertise to learn about any child, and to personalize that knowledge using all of the available resources. ‘Culturally responsive teaching’ is a useful concept to use to describe this teaching process required to ‘know the learner’.

According to Ladson-Billings (1995) being culturally responsive is a pedagogy that recognises the importance of including students’ cultural references in all aspects of teaching and learning. A hallmark of culturally responsive teaching would be that every student has knowledge and prior experiences acknowledged, valued, and *incorporated into the classroom curriculum*. CLD students might not experience a relevant curriculum unless the teacher is aware of, and open to, using the knowledge

and expertise offered by them and their families. Hollins and Olliver (1999) state, “to better serve an increasingly diverse population, it is imperative that teachers improve their competence in selecting and developing culturally responsive curricula and instructional approaches that better facilitate learning” (p.xiii).

Various theorists describe the need to *make connections* between the knowledge of teachers and students (Bruner, 1966; Cazden, 1988; Garcia, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1994). McNaughton (2002) calls the connection process a ‘meeting of minds’. He suggests that the ‘meeting of minds’ is a problem facing teachers of all children, but it is “particularly significant for teachers in school communities serving students with cultural and linguistic identities different from those of the majority culture” (p.15). Thus, culturally responsive pedagogy highlights the need for teachers to incorporate elements of students’ cultures into their teaching. This would ensure the taught curriculum would be relevant to all learners by “building on the familiar and unlocking the unfamiliar” (McNaughton, 2002, p.118). McFarlane (2004) argues that schools can be more inclusive if they use “culturally responsive pedagogies that enable students to achieve a sense of pride in their culture, and at the same time experience success in their learning” (p.62). It would also foster students who are able to engage critically with all ethnic and cultural backgrounds, including their own (May, 1999).

In practical terms, teaching that makes connections in learning and enables students to successfully move between home and school, is required. It is argued that the continuity and congruence between a child’s home culture and that of the school is critical to success of the child (Alton-Lee, 2003; Brooking, 2007; McNaughton, 2002). For some children, school is an extension of home and community, but for others there is discontinuity in language, and in the connections made to their prior knowledge. These students are denied equitable access to learning (Villegas & Lucas, 2002b). Each student’s literacy learning is situated in the culture of their family and community. Knowing the learner means knowing each student’s cultural and linguistic background and recognising the strengths this brings to a classroom. Houk (2005) refers to these strengths as ‘gift’ when he states:

It is important that we take the time to identify, acknowledge, and incorporate the strengths and resources that our students have, and put those gifts to work

in the service of their learning. When we approach students this way we begin to teach them *differently* (my emphasis) (p.ix).

Gay (2000) defines culturally responsive teaching as “using the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant and effective for them” (p.29). She also suggests some elements critical to encompassing a culturally responsive classroom. These include:

- Acknowledging the legitimacy of the cultural heritages of different ethnic groups;
- Building bridges of meaningfulness between home and school experiences as well as between academic abstractions and lived socio-cultural realities;
- Using a wide variety of instructional strategies;
- Teaching students to know and praise their own and others’ heritages; and
- Incorporating multicultural information, resources, and materials in all subjects (p.29).

Culturally responsive teaching is not a single event, but is achieved through *daily, in-depth and integrated work*. Some specific guidance and suggestions for ways forward are available. Banks (2007) draws attention to increasing diversity and suggests teachers can improve their culturally responsive teaching through:

- Content integration - using examples and content from a variety of cultures and groups;
- Knowledge construction – helping students to investigate the frames of reference and cultural assumptions embedded in the school curriculum; and
- An equity pedagogy – focusing on closing achievement gaps in diverse groups and modify teaching in some way (p.145).

In a current New Zealand research initiative, the Te Kotahitanga Research Project, teacher professional learning that makes a difference to Māori student achievement in secondary schools has been outlined (Bishop & Berryman, 2006). In this project, student narratives are used as a springboard with teachers to examine experiences of Māori students in mainstream classrooms. The student narratives identify the quality of relationships between students and teachers as a key factor to success. Students also revealed that they wanted high quality teaching without a threat to their identity as Māori. Bishop (2003) suggests that teachers create “contexts where they

(Māori students) can safely bring what they know and who they are into the learning relationship” (p.229). He suggests that teachers should interact with students in a way that co-creates new knowledge, so that what students know forms the basis of interactions and learning in the classroom, where ‘*culture counts*’. Using student narratives, Bishop and his colleagues develop a detailed professional development programme that challenges the views of teachers. In the Te Kotahitanga Research Project, changes in teacher practice, including a wider, explicit range of teaching strategies and approaches have been associated with gains in Māori student achievement. Bishop’s (2003) philosophy for learning in Kaupapa Māori educational settings states:

Learning is to be reciprocal and interactive, home and school learning is to be interrelated, learners are to be connected to each other and learn from each other. Finally, a common set of goals and principles should guide the process (p.227).

While this research has Māori students at its heart, it does provide a catalyst for comparison to other diverse student groups. There are implications for teachers of CLD students through the clarity of messages about teacher-student relationships, student cultural identity and specific, effective teaching methods.

1.4.2 Thinking about language

It is through language that we learn. As we acquire language, we acquire the categories and concepts through which we understand the world. Language is the medium through which an individual interprets and understands his or her experience and organises reality (Vygotsky, 1978). In this section, I consider the importance of languages and consider the place of having more than one language in a (typically) monolingual school setting and society. I will also consider the distinction between social forms of English and the academic forms of English crucial to success at school.

It needs to be acknowledged that English language ability is only one facet of language knowledge for CLD learners. Skutnabb-Kangas (2007) argues that “one of the basic linguistic human rights of persons belonging to minorities is – or should be –

to achieve high levels of bi- or multi-lingualism through education” (p. 137). Many schools in Aotearoa/New Zealand are only just beginning conversations about the place of linguistic diversity and the reality is that most bilingual learners are entering an education system that emphasises (English only) mono-lingualism (Bishop & Glynn, 1999; May, 2002). For many CLD learners, acquisition of English does not lead to bilingualism, but results in the loss or erosion of their primary heritage language. While children are no longer punished for using their heritage languages at school, there are powerful reasons why children feel pressure to use only English in school settings (Delpit, 1995; Wong-Fillmore, 1991). CLD learners, in most cases, rely on the skills of their parents and communities in valuing and maintaining language strength (Barnard, 2003b). Some CLD learners do study their heritage language and become fully bilingual or multi lingual, but for many CLD learners in New Zealand, especially where they are few in number, there may be little opportunity. A weekend school organised by a community language group is one alternative, but the option for many learners and their families is to maintain heritage languages at home.

Linguistic issues will vary from one family setting to another, but a central message for teachers and schools is that bilingualism or multilingualism is something parents and children should aspire to (Barnard, 2003a; Cummins, 2007; May et al., 2004). García, Skutnabb-Kangas and Torres-Guzmán (2006) discuss culturally and linguistically diverse peoples as having a double vision, that is “multiple ways of using our languages to voice an alternative worldview and a critical perspective” (p.10). They suggest that teachers’ knowledge to build on and support the multiplicity of languages is central to effective teaching.

All teachers are teachers of academic language, and while no child is born with school language as a first language, for some students the match between home and school language is more closely aligned than for other students. Jim Cummins’ (1984) notion of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) reminds teachers of the centrality of academic language to the learning process at school. Formal academic language is the language of success in our society. Language acquisition is therefore measured in terms of CALP rather than the social English familiar to personal interactions and playground language. It is important that teachers broadly understand

the differences between social and academic English and focus on CLD students' acquisition of CALP. It is easy for teachers to be 'fooled' by a bilingual speaker who has mastered the art of sounding fluent in English, yet does not have a sufficient range of vocabulary and complexity of language forms to function effectively at appropriate curriculum levels. The truth however is that languages do not operate distinctly or independently for learning. Cummins (1981) argues, that although languages may seem separate and distinct on the surface with different vocabulary, syntax etc, they are actually deeply connected. He asserts that cognitive proficiency, prior knowledge and academic skills are transferable because of a Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP). Thus, academic achievement and positive classroom learning outcomes are closely tied to fluency in the child's heritage language. There is a cognitive, academic and social *advantage* to bilingualism when it is viewed as a benefit and a resource (May, Hill & Tiakiwai 2004). May (2004 et al.) argue "we need to actively *identify* and *value* these students' customary linguistic practices as social, cultural and educational *resources* (italics original) in the teaching and learning process" (p. 2). How teachers use the language resources a learner brings to the classroom is worthy of consideration.

1.4.3 Thinking about effective teaching strategies and approaches

A central part of this study is to understand and shape specific teacher knowledge of teaching CLD learners. There is a growing field of literature available about the specific teaching strategies and approaches that are most effective for CLD learners. A basic premise is that the curriculum for CLD learners *will be the same as for the whole class* with the selection of tasks and texts linked to the appropriate age and cognitive stage of the learner (Brewster and Ellis, 2002; Gibbons, 2002; Walqui, 2002). It is not a programme 'watered down' or isolated from the regular school curriculum. The teaching process needs to allow for 'tasks with scope', that is classroom tasks that allow students to use the knowledge and skills they bring to the task, but allowing for different starting points and different pathways to reach desired learning outcomes (Clay, 1998). Teachers will need to select rich and authentic literacy tasks from the moment of starting school (McNaughton, 2002).

The selection of the tasks described by McNaughton (2002) and Clay (1998) are opposite to some of the ‘skills and drill’ formulaic tasks sometimes advocated in ESOL programmes. Cummins, writing in his foreword to Gibbons (2002) states:

skills-oriented transmission approaches to instruction have submerged the fragile rhetoric of the need for higher-order thinking and critical literacy. In some inner city districts, ‘teacher-proof’ scripted phonics programmes that reduce teachers’ instructional role simply to parroting the one-size-fits-all script have been presented as a quick fix to boosting students’ reading and overall academic progress (p.iv).

Cummins’ criticism is relevant to the teaching programmes for CLD learners sometimes noted in New Zealand classrooms (Franken & McComish 2003b).

Franken & McComish (2003b) argue there are specific conditions for EAL⁶ teaching that are required. They argue for the addition of six features beyond general effective teaching characteristics. These are:

- An inclusive school;
- Whole school alignment between EAL and mainstream curriculum;
- Appropriate goals and assessment;
- Students experience positive classroom environments;
- Classroom practices where students are given sufficient exposure to language input, opportunities to use language in extended contexts, and opportunities for significant repetitions and expansion of use; and
- The specification of content of EAL teaching is comprehensive and includes academic vocabulary development (p.2).

Some other effective pedagogy and teaching guidelines for teachers of CLD learners have been articulated. Seven principles for ‘Planning for Content and Language Learning Across the Curriculum’ are listed in New Zealand on the New Zealand teachers’ internet portal, Te Kete Ipurangi at (<http://esolonline.tki.org.nz>). It is suggested that by incorporating the listed principles into planning, teachers will be able to help CLD students make academic progress in curriculum areas, while they are learning English.

⁶ English as an additional language

The principles are:

- Know your learners - their experiential background, their language background, their language proficiency;
- Identify the learning outcomes including the language demands of the teaching and learning;
- Ensure a balance between receptive and productive language;
- Begin with context-embedded tasks which make the abstract concrete;
- Provide multiple opportunities for authentic language use with a focus on students using academic language;
- Help students achieve the same explicit learning outcomes using differentiated levels of support;
- Include opportunities for monitoring and self-evaluation.

There are also international guidelines that provide relevant suggestions for teachers of CLD learners. In the U.S.A., The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004) has been developed to provide teachers with direction for instruction across the curriculum. The intent of this model is to facilitate high quality instruction and includes:

- Write content objectives clearly for students;
- Write language objectives clearly for students;
- Choose content concepts appropriate for age of students;
- Identify supplementary materials to use;
- Adapt content to all levels of student proficiency; and
- Plan meaningful activities that integrate lesson concepts with language practice opportunities.

In an extensive search of research in the UK, Parker-Jenkins, Hewitt, Brownhill, and Sanders (2004) at the Social Science Research Unit at the University of London (EPPI-Centre) identified a range of strategies instrumental in raising academic achievement of students from culturally diverse backgrounds. They suggest their findings provide direction for schools which includes:

- Raising pupil confidence and motivation;
- Selecting curriculum reflective of pupils' backgrounds;
- Ensuring effective school leadership;

- Involving senior management in classroom observation and teaching;
- Having high expectations of pupils;
- Incorporating team teaching;
- Having a whole-school commitment to raising attainment;
- Securing parental support in school and homework activities;
- Monitoring lessons with a focus on equal opportunities and anti-racist teaching;
- Introducing a Foundation Programme in Year 7 at Secondary level to foster a culture of learning;
- Using first language and dual language texts in the Numeracy and Literacy hours;
- Providing opportunities for small group work in literacy; and
- Involving bilingual classroom assistants (p.3).

In other UK research, newly trained teachers were surveyed to investigate their perspectives on their ability to teach CLD learners (Hall & Cajkler, 2008). Teachers' confidence and preparation for teaching students who have English as an additional language (EAL) were examined. The authors expressed surprise at reported low levels of confidence in teaching reading and writing as well as identified needs for information on students' language backgrounds. They concluded that, on the whole teachers are "partially but not wholly prepared for the task of teaching EAL" (Hall & Cajkler, 2008, p.357). Although they offered no suggestions about its form, they suggested that gaps in teacher pedagogy and knowledge be bridged through professional development of teachers.

High achievement for diverse groups of learners seems to be an outcome of teachers' skills in creating and optimising an effective teaching and learning environment (Alton-Lee, 2003). It is clear from the research-based findings noted above, that strategies and approaches and principles of effective teaching for CLD learners *are* available to teachers. It could be argued that there is indeed much congruence in the effective teaching pedagogy for diverse learners listed. However, these principles need to become more than bullet points on a list if they are to become embedded into an effective teaching programme. A highly contextualised, language-rich teaching environment is required to facilitate academic language acquisition in English.

Houk (2005) states, “When we make shifts in our pedagogy to accommodate English language learners, we make changes that benefit all children” (p.xi).

1.5 Scaffolding learning for students: A critical concept

Central to effective teaching of CLD learners is the notion that teachers must effectively scaffold their teaching to enable successful learning (Hammond, 2001; Gibbons, 2002). The term ‘scaffolding’ is used because of its analogy to the support given to buildings. The scaffolding is placed around the outside of a new building to allow builders access to the emerging structure as it rises from the ground. Once the building is able to support itself, the scaffolding is removed. The metaphor of scaffolding is used to help teachers to understand the process of providing essential (but temporary) supports that will help learners develop new understandings and skills. Hammond (2001) states:

teachers need to provide temporary supporting structures that will assist learners to develop new understandings, new concepts and new abilities. As the learner develops control of these, so teachers need to withdraw that support, only to provide further support for extended or new tasks, understandings and concepts (p.2).

Hammond’s comment reinforces that supports for students’ learning will change and hopefully reduce over time. Herrera and Murry (2005) state, “Scaffolding involves extensive instructional and contextual support in the early stages of learning, followed by a gradual withdrawal of such support as the student’s performance suggests independence” (p. 69).

The discussion around scaffolding originates from the work of Jerome Bruner whose theory of learning saw individual interactions, within a social context, as a key determiner of cognitive development. He also discussed the roles that tutor and learner play in the growth of intellectual development (Bruner, 1966). Following this, Vygotsky (1978, p. 86) coined the concept of a ‘Zone of Proximal Development’ (ZPD) that describes the ‘distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of development as determined through problem solving under guidance or in collaboration with more

capable peers'. The Zone of Proximal Development defines an area of immediate potential. It is within this zone that a learner's achievement today (with assistance) can later be achieved independently. A teacher's ability to extend learners from their current level and bridge the learning to a higher level within their zone of development is a central tenet in the notion of scaffolding, and of effective teaching.

Another important concept for teachers of CLD learners, drawn from the field of second language acquisition, and seemingly influenced by Vygotsky, is Krashen's (1988) concept of 'comprehensible input'. Although Krashen's theory is based on appropriate language input, rather than a broader theory of learning, it could be considered analogous. Comprehensible input can be described mathematically as $(x + 1)$, and reminds teachers that effective teaching must be pitched at the right level for a new learner (that is at the level x), but still contain an element of challenge (plus 1). Supporting teachers so they can provide an appropriate level of input comprehensible to learners will be a key part of shaping their teaching pedagogy.

The pedagogy of scaffolding is encapsulated by the metaphor of finding 'a bridge' for CLD learners to link already known information to new learning. Teachers will need to provide the most appropriate scaffold, at exactly the time that it is needed. In reality, finding this appropriate, exact level for each student is a challenge. It frequently depends on a teacher's ability to provide some modified instruction or activity that engages the learner, without oversimplifying the content (Walqui, 2007). That is, effective teaching may need to be 'differentiated' carefully to the needs of each learner or group of learners. Other premises, such as cooperative and collaborative learning pedagogy, also underpin key approaches and strategies. Even from Foundation or beginner level language learning it is better to put students into groups with others to talk and to learn (Gibbons, 2002).

What is the relevance scaffolding for the actual classroom practice of teachers? It provides a theoretical basis for understanding a process that is effective for all students, including those from diverse language and cultural backgrounds. It is the basis for many of the guidelines for practice listed in the previous section on pp20-23. Teachers in the research will be encouraged to use teaching strategies and processes that scaffold teaching within learners' Zones of Proximal Development. Ensuring

input that is ‘comprehensible’ to learners will become part of their repertoires of practice. Building up relevant experiences, building on prior knowledge, building vocabulary or sentence structures and building knowledge of whole paragraph and text organisation are likely to be some of the key components. So too will be the development and use of authentic, rich tasks. CLD learners will lack motivation if tasks are too easy, but suffer frustration if tasks are too difficult. The type and level of support (scaffold) will vary according to the stage of the learner in his or her developing English. That is, teachers will need to be clear about learners’ current levels of knowledge and development, and ensure that the necessary element of challenge and support is available.

1.6 Shaping teacher knowledge: The process of professional development and learning

Professional development for teachers is recognised as a vital component in the enhancement of quality teaching and learning in schools. It is therefore of significant interest to policy makers, educational institutions, boards of trustees and principals to ensure the professional development process is as effective as possible. Increasingly, evidence is sought about the effects of professional development, not only on teacher knowledge, but also on classroom teaching practice and student learning outcomes. Clearly professional learning that leads to improvement in the achievement of culturally and linguistically diverse students is welcome.

Traditional models of professional development were largely divorced from practice, taking place at workshops or courses away from classrooms, with teachers having little management of their own learning programme (Fullan, 2001; Guskey & Huberman, 1995; Poskitt, 2001). More recent models have advocated that real changes in teacher practice will occur only when teachers’ professional learning is set in a context of demonstration, practice, feedback and coaching (Joyce & Showers, 2002; Robertson, 2005). Other studies have developed a model of professional learning that fosters the teacher as a reflective practitioner (Schön, 1991). A key contribution of Schön (1991) was to bring ‘reflection’ to the centre of focus with a distinction between ‘reflection-in-action’ (teachers thinking on their feet) and ‘reflection-on-action’, used to build and inform new learning. He also highlighted the

differences that might occur between teachers 'espoused theories', what they say they do and 'theories-in-use', what they actually do. For teacher learning to move to sustained and effective teacher practice, it is 'deep' learning that is required (Senge, Cambron-McCabe, Lucas, Smith, Dutton & Kleiner, 2000; Timperley, Fung, Wilson & Barrar, 2006). Professional learning is not something done by others. It is something we must do ourselves (Davis, 2004). Effective professional development frequently requires groups of teachers to work actively and collaboratively together (Annan, Lai & Robinson, 2003; Du Four, 2004; Stoll, 2000). A supplementary benefit is that classrooms become more open to examination, often called 'deprivatisation of teaching practice'. In some research the term 'professional development' is replaced by 'professional learning' as it (arguably) better reflects a reflexive process for individual teachers.

Effective professional learning is not just about building teacher knowledge. A number of authors argue strongly for professional development that transfers teacher learning into actual classroom practice. Professional development should make a difference to the delivery of classroom teaching and learning programmes and be able to provide the evidence to support this (Earl & Katz, 2002; Guskey, 2002; Hill, Hawk & Taylor, 2002). New knowledge and skills are best learned in the contexts where the knowledge is obtained and applied (Ministry of Education, 2008). However, teachers will need to be able to transfer or adapt new knowledge to the realities of each new teaching situation.

Evidence of improved teacher practice should also be visible through student learning outcomes (Guskey, 2000; Timperley & Parr, 2004). In *Ki Te Aoturoa* (Ministry of Education, 2008) teacher resource materials it states, "If teaching is the greatest system influence on student outcomes, then it seems reasonable to assume that effective professional learning opportunities for teachers lead to improved student outcomes" (p.14). Timperley, Wilson, Barrar and Fung (2007) in the *Teacher Professional Learning and Development Best Evidence Synthesis Iteration* searched international literature to find studies that provide evidence for student achievement, related specifically to teacher learning. Their focus was to investigate available research on how teachers' interpret understandings during professional development opportunities. In other words, they wanted to explore the 'black box' between

teaching and associated student outcomes. The ‘black box’ refers to that uncertain and unknown action that occurs within teachers and leads to changes or shifts in teaching actions. Thus we have a chain of influence, from professional development providers to teachers and finally to students, that needs to be understood.

Timperley et al. (2007) state, “ little is known about how teachers interpret the available understandings and utilise the particular skills offered during professional learning opportunities” (p.xxiii). They suggest that a model of effective professional starts with a catalyst or rationale to engage teachers, ‘frontloading’ of new learning, and then action. A range of activities to refine new practice and repeated opportunities to revisit knowledge is also a feature. Timperley, et al. (2007) summarise some elements of effective professional development as providing:

- Extended time for opportunities to learn;
- External expertise;
- Teachers’ engagement in learning;
- Prevailing discourses challenged;
- Opportunities to participate in a professional community of practice;
- Consistency with wider trends in policy and research; and
- Active school leadership (p. xxxii).

In an extensive search of research on the impact of professional development in the UK, Cordingley, Bell, Rundell and Evans (2003) at the Social Science Research Unit, University of London (EPPI-Centre) identified that continuing teacher professional development did lead to improvements in teaching and learning although makes no mention of student outcomes). The report suggests a number of core features for effective professional development. These include:

- The use of external expertise linked to school-based activity;
- Observation;
- Feedback (usually based on observation);
- An emphasis on peer support rather than leadership by supervisors;
- Scope for teachers to identify their own professional focus;
- Processes to encourage, extend and structure professional dialogue;
- Processes for sustaining the professional development over time to enable teachers to embed the practices in their own classroom settings (p.61).

While the research outlined above shows some conditions of professional learning, it stops short of describing any particular methods or approaches that are best for teachers. No specific activities are viewed as more effective than others, but rather, engaging in multiple, aligned, opportunities to learn are considered as significant factors (Timperley et al., 2007).

Sometimes, but not of necessity, an outside expert will provide the impetus for the professional learning (Timperley et al., 2007; Henry, 2007). These outside experts will also need substantial content knowledge, described as ‘provider pedagogical content knowledge’ as well as the ability to make learning meaningful for teachers (Henry, 2007).

There are very few studies that focus specifically on the impact of professional learning *with teachers of diverse learners*. One study in the USA measured the impact of professional development on teachers’ use of a range of specific strategies (referred to as Sheltered Instruction) with English language learners. Crawford, Schmeister and Biggs (2008) report a professional development programme aimed at improving teachers pedagogical content knowledge by requiring them to be involved in a 45-hour course of study in teaching English language learners as well as classroom observation and mentoring for eight sessions. The authors assert, “that the study is one of very few that provides empirical confirmation of assumptions maintained in the literature of best practice for effective professional development” (Crawford et al., 2008, p.330). Their findings show that teachers did improve their use of specific strategies for effective teaching of English language learners as a result of professional development. It seems that effective professional development must increase teacher knowledge, and also provide a context for embedding that knowledge into actual teaching practice.

Effective professional development is an important component of improving and supporting the pedagogy and practice of teaching. It provides teachers with opportunities to reflect on and improve their practice. In many cases this will take an extended time and require regular contacts. Drawing from the research base described above and from my prior experiences as an adviser, it is clear there are a range of

learning activities that are effective elements in a professional development and learning programme. These include: in-class modelling of specific teaching strategies, observation of teaching, and providing quality feedback to teachers. As noted above, quality professional learning comes from opportunities for teachers to engage at a deep level with a range of ideas and approaches. There is increasing understanding about how teachers interpret and take up the knowledge and skills they gain through the professional development process (Timperley, et al 2007; Ministry of Education, 2008). However, less certainty surrounds this professional development process in relation to the specific needs of teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students. In this study I am interested in exploring the ways professional development can scaffold teacher professional development and impact on teaching practice.

1.6.1 Scaffolding learning for teachers

Shaping teacher knowledge and, in turn, shaping teacher practice is a key focus for this research. Teachers too, are diverse learners who bring their own sets of knowledge, attitudes and skills to the classroom. While the concept of scaffolding has traditionally been applied to younger learners, it is just as applicable to the teaching of adults. An understanding of the teacher's prior knowledge and current needs, as exemplified in the notion of scaffolding, is likely to be critical to the success of the professional development process. Teachers too, will need to be guided by a knowledgeable 'tutor' or adviser and appropriately scaffolded in order for optimal learning to take place. It is important to support teachers' new understandings and new practices in the most appropriate manner so that the opportunities to learn are relevant and significant. Thus, a first step for professional development facilitators is to create an effective learning environment for teachers. Teachers' own cultural patterns and language are often taken-for-granted in the classroom context, yet they too require interpretations that are contextually, culturally and historically specific.

In this research the metaphor of scaffolding is also used to understand the process of providing essential (but temporary) supports that will help **teachers** develop new understandings and skills. However, the exact nature of the professional learning that works most effectively for teachers with CLD students in their classrooms is not clear and is one element that the study explores. Appropriate professional learning content

and delivery is developed according to the prior knowledge and needs of each teacher. The professional learning experiences might therefore look different in each class as each teacher's starting point and zone of proximal development for learning is determined. I will need to show flexibility and adaptability in the learning context to meet teachers' needs, in the same way that teachers do with their students.

1.6.2 Shaping teacher beliefs

Effective professional development will recognise the theories that teachers bring with them to the learning context. Shifts in teachers' pedagogy are critical to improvement in teachers' practices (Johnston & Hayes, 2007). Timperley et al. (2007) suggest that professional development works when it increases a teacher's pedagogical content knowledge, that is both the teachers' knowledge of curriculum and how to teach it. Hattie (2003) also identifies teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as being critical to improved teaching practice. However, in some instances improving PCK comes about by challenging teachers and creating dissonance with their currently held ideas about teaching. Timperley and Robinson (2002) suggest "that if external agents are to be effective, they must take teachers beyond their understandings and analysis of current situations and challenge accepted schema" (p.298). That is, an effective professional learning process will need to challenge teachers' prevailing beliefs.

What is known to be effective practice is not always that which is actually practised. Good teaching is not just learned habits put into action, but informed by thinking, feelings, knowledge, values and beliefs (Gibbs 2003). We bring our beliefs about schools, culture, diversity and the processes of teaching and learning to the classroom. Every teacher is culturally situated, and this influences how teachers see and interpret the behaviour of others who are culturally different from them (Bishop, 2003). Beliefs are not static entities and are subject to change, although often resilient to it. They influence the way teachers plan, teach and interact with students. There is a correlation between teachers' beliefs and decisions made about classroom instruction (Pajares 1992; Kagan, 1992).

Considerable evidence points to the fact that many teachers underestimate the knowledge and skills of the students they teach (Timperley & Robinson, 2002). Ladson-Billings (1994) points to statements from teachers that underscore the deep ideological biases and lack of expectations for success of African American students. Herrera and Murry (2005) state, “often educators associate a limited ability to speak the language of instruction with an inability to perform academic tasks at the appropriate age-related level” (p. 53). Students’ bilingual language resources are often ignored, and their English language competence is often compared negatively to a teacher’s own, thus limiting students’ educational opportunities (May & Janks, 2004). Rubie-Davies (2006) describes an interrelationship between teachers’ expectations and beliefs, and students’ opportunities to learn. She identified teachers with low expectations were less facilitative, and students completed less-demanding activities.

In some cases teachers excuse the way they teach, arguing that they treat all children the same. They see children, not children of different ethnicity. While on the surface this may seem to be appropriate, it is sending other messages. Delpit (1995) states:

I would like to suggest that if one does not see color, then one does not really see children. Children made ‘invisible’ in this manner become hard-pressed to see themselves worthy of notice (p.177).

While Delpit (1995) is writing in the context of teachers of Afro-American children, in Aotearoa/New Zealand the reference might be just as applicable to teachers of culturally and linguistically diverse learners.

Challenging teachers’ beliefs is especially important if there is some level of deficit theorising. Deficit theorising refers to teachers’ assumptions that some students operate with a deficit, and are inferior to other children, because of cultural or experiential differences (Carter, 2003). Anecdotal evidence and experience from my work as an adviser, is that teachers commonly use cultural and linguistic diversity as a reason for *low* achievement levels, but rarely offer it as a contributor to success. Carter (2003) suggests that the “deficit model paralyzes many teachers as they believe that circumstances in the student’s life prevents learning” (p.64). It is important that teachers take responsibility for the success of all learners in their classroom. Teachers’ beliefs about CLD students and learning will need to be examined in order to unlock and understand some aspects of their thinking.

1.7 Significance of the research and research questions

I would argue that teaching CLD learners effectively is a significant challenge and requires specific teaching strategies and approaches. Teachers are required to gain expertise in teaching strategies as well expand their culturally responsive teaching and need to be able to take multiple perspectives to look broadly and carefully at their classroom. There is a need for effective teacher professional learning that enables teachers to shape their teaching skills specifically to CLD learners. One way to improve teachers' practice is through engagement in in-depth professional learning and development. Haworth (2003) in her summary challenges teacher educators to "find effective ways to direct and increase teachers' conscious attention to the challenge of the (CLD) students in their classrooms" (p.162). The nature of the professional development programme to best engage teachers, improve their professional content knowledge of teaching culturally and linguistically diverse learners and ultimately raise student achievement, is open to question.

There is an expanding body of knowledge about best teaching practice for CLD learners. There are clear guidelines and information about the most effective professional learning and development processes for teachers. However, there is currently a research space between these fields of knowledge. How we get teachers to learn specific new teaching approaches and strategies, at the same time as developing other acknowledged skills to become culturally responsive, is an interesting question. We simply do not know enough about how best to provide professional learning opportunities that challenge teachers' assumptions, work deeply on their beliefs and empower them with effective teaching strategies to raise achievement of students from diverse backgrounds. How teachers embed these principles or ideals into their teacher practice is a matter worthy of study.

Gaining a greater understanding of the link between teachers' professional learning and effective teaching of CLD students will enable providers of professional development to be more effective. Informed by the research-based information described in Chapter 1, and my experiences as an ESOL and literacy adviser, I sought responses to three questions:

- How do teachers make sense of culturally diverse learners and what do they view as effective practice for these learners
- What do teachers value being exposed to in professional development and learning, with respect to culturally and linguistically diverse learners?
- How do teachers interpret professional learning into practice and how is my practice shaped by teacher responses?

Chapter 2. Methodology

2.1 Introduction

Research questions are always theoretically informed (Silverman, 2001). Different research problems require different research approaches (Mills, 2007). The methodology refers to the choices made about research: the examples selected to study, the methods of data collection and the forms of data analyses. When examining research questions, and seeking knowledge about teaching and learning, there are underlying philosophical perspectives that guide the researcher's methodological approaches, the questions asked (or not asked) and the interpretations made. Neuman (2000) has argued that theorists made a major contribution to social research, including research in schools and classrooms, when they contended that, "rigorous, systematic observation of the social world, combined with careful, logical thinking, could provide a new and valuable type of knowledge" (p.64).

The methodology of this research is therefore situated in the domain of qualitative research as I seek to make systematic observations combined with the 'careful, logical thinking' suggested by Neuman. In this chapter I will outline the theoretical orientations that support the methodological stance and position of the research and provide a rationale for decisions relating to the research design. To do this I will: describe some features of qualitative research, describe the research design, outline the setting and participants, explain the data collection tools and the methods of data analysis.

As a qualitative researcher I want to know how the participants in my study make sense of, understand, and interpret into practice, teaching strategies and approaches for culturally and linguistically diverse students. Also, I want to examine the professional learning process that facilitates this understanding. As an adviser, a researcher and a learner, using methods of action research, I examined two teachers (and their class of culturally and linguistically diverse students) in order to gain an understanding of teacher practice.

2.2 Qualitative Research

The term qualitative research means different things to different people. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) point out that the goals of qualitative research include description, understanding and interpretation. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) remind us, “there is no one way to do interpretive, qualitative inquiry” (p. xv). While different practices and methods are used in a wide range of contexts and disciplines, at its core is the desire to provide insight and knowledge. At its heart is the belief that a ‘deeper’ understanding of social worlds, such as schools and classrooms is possible (Silverman, 2001). Qualitative research aims to uncover the lived reality or constructed meanings of the research participants (Bouma, 2000; Mutch, 2005). It starts from asking questions and aims to illuminate and understand the experiences of others. Qualitative researchers therefore use multi-method forms of inquiry and interpretive practices to build insight and knowledge of their subject matter. They use a wide variety of empirical tools to describe the events and meanings in individuals’ lives. Above all there is an expectation that researchers act ethically to gather and interpret this information. Frequently, a goal of qualitative research is to effect social good and positive change.

While qualitative research is a field of inquiry in its own right, for the purpose of this research it is a process to guide inquiry in an educational context. Schools are social contexts with shifting dynamics and constant change. Teaching therefore occurs in a social environment, and relationships and interactions are an inevitable part of the process. It is a process that involves uncovering layers of detail and complexity, including the multiple realities of individuals. The task of the qualitative researcher is to capture what people say and do, and to interpret and understand events from the view of the participants. Understanding the reality of participants requires thoughtful inquiry which must acknowledge the many lenses which act as filters to information. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) state, “There are no objective observations, only observations socially situated in the worlds of – and between – the observer and the observed” (p.19). Eisner (1981) says that the effect of qualitative research is determined by the extent to which it informs. There is no test for statistical significance, no measure of construct validity... What one seeks is

illumination and penetration. The proof of the pudding is the way in which it shapes our conception of the world or some aspect of it (p.6).

This research is situated in a social-constructivist framework where constructing knowledge is viewed as an active, constructive process. Learning is about the construction of meaning that goes on in the mind of the learner (or teacher) as they are engaged in learning opportunities, rather than some pre-determined level of ability (Clay, 1998). Similarly, it is about the construction of meaning in the mind of the researcher as she is engaged in research learning opportunities. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) state, “knowledge and truth are created, not discovered by mind” (p.236).

Social constructionism is an *epistemology*, “a theory of knowledge embedded in theoretical perspective and thereby in the methodology” (Crotty, 1998, p.3). Not only are we building individual knowledge through personal experience, but also we are actualising and understanding the knowledge within a wider social context. We learn from ‘stepping back’ to see how knowledge changes with context and situation. At the heart of social constructionism therefore, is an understanding that the ways in which we commonly understand the world are historically and culturally specific (Burr, 1995; 2003). As specific knowledge and truth emerges, multiple and possibly conflicting constructions and discourses can arise. Burr (1995) states “each discourse brings different aspects into focus, raises different issues for consideration, and has implications for what we should do” (p.50). Thus, “the way language is structured therefore determines the way that experience and consciousness are structured” (Burr, 2003, p.35).

Schools and classrooms are complex and multifaceted, so developing a story as experienced by the participants requires a multidimensional approach (Walford, 2001). Teachers are therefore seen as both creators and users of knowledge in the social context of the school in which they are situated. So too, are students. So is a researcher. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) reiterate that, “inquiry methodology requires attending both to the inquirer’s own self-reflective awareness of his or her own constructions and to the *social* (italics original) construction of individual constructions” (p.242). While examining events and meanings of the two teachers, I will also need to engage in self-critique. Not only am I studying aspects of the

classroom world of these two teachers, I am studying my own role as an adviser and researcher within each classroom. I will also need to consider the constraints this places on the inquiry. Thus all of the partners in the process of improving student outcomes are constructing knowledge through interaction. Ultimately, the goal of this study is to add to a pool of knowledge, specifically in the area of professional development for teachers of CLD students.

2.2.1 Action Research

Qualitative researchers approach their research in a variety of ways. In this research, an Action Research process has enabled me to examine of my own role as an adviser working with teachers of CLD students, thus bringing theory, research and practice together.

There is a range of different models of Action Research, but all have components of planning, action, and reflection or evaluation. The Action Research process is often depicted as a spiral, in order to emphasise its on-going and cyclical nature. At the end of each cycle of inquiry it is important to consider whether to begin a new cycle of inquiry, or to revisit an issue that emerged previously. Data collection, data analysis and developing theory are seen as emergent and recursive. Key ideas or theory will be grounded within the data and develop out of the research endeavour (Mutch, 2005).

The Action Research model that I used is the Action Research Spiral, as outlined by Kemmis and McTaggart (1988). This model originates from the work of Kurt Lewin (1946, cited in Kemmis and McTaggart) and despite its age, still provides a useful framework. It is a model of Planning, Action, Observation, Reflection, Revised planning, Action, Observation, Reflection in a continuous and on-going spiral. The stages are referred to as ‘four moments’. The model begins with a plan of action, based on a critically informed educational intent. Evidence about the action is gathered through careful observation that is “responsive, open-eyed and open minded” (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988, p.13). Reflection is viewed as an active process, and is usually aided by discussion with participants. The reflection is descriptive, building a picture of the participants’ world, as well as evaluative.

Action Research usually occurs in natural settings, in this case a school, and has features that are particularly valuable for understanding educational practice. It is not an ad-hoc process, but is systematic and planned. Problems are identified, changes implemented and outcomes evaluated. Systematic observation and data collection form the basis for decision-making. Action Research provides a model of professional learning that engages teachers (or facilitators of professional development) in the research process, therefore offering practitioners a way of making improvements, fostering learning and developing themselves (Cardno, 2003). Keervin, Vialle, Herrington and Okely (2006) state:

Action Research captures the important elements of a systematic research process in the context of the everyday work of teachers. It has the potential to add significantly to our knowledge about teaching and learning as well as directly influencing educational practice (p.193).

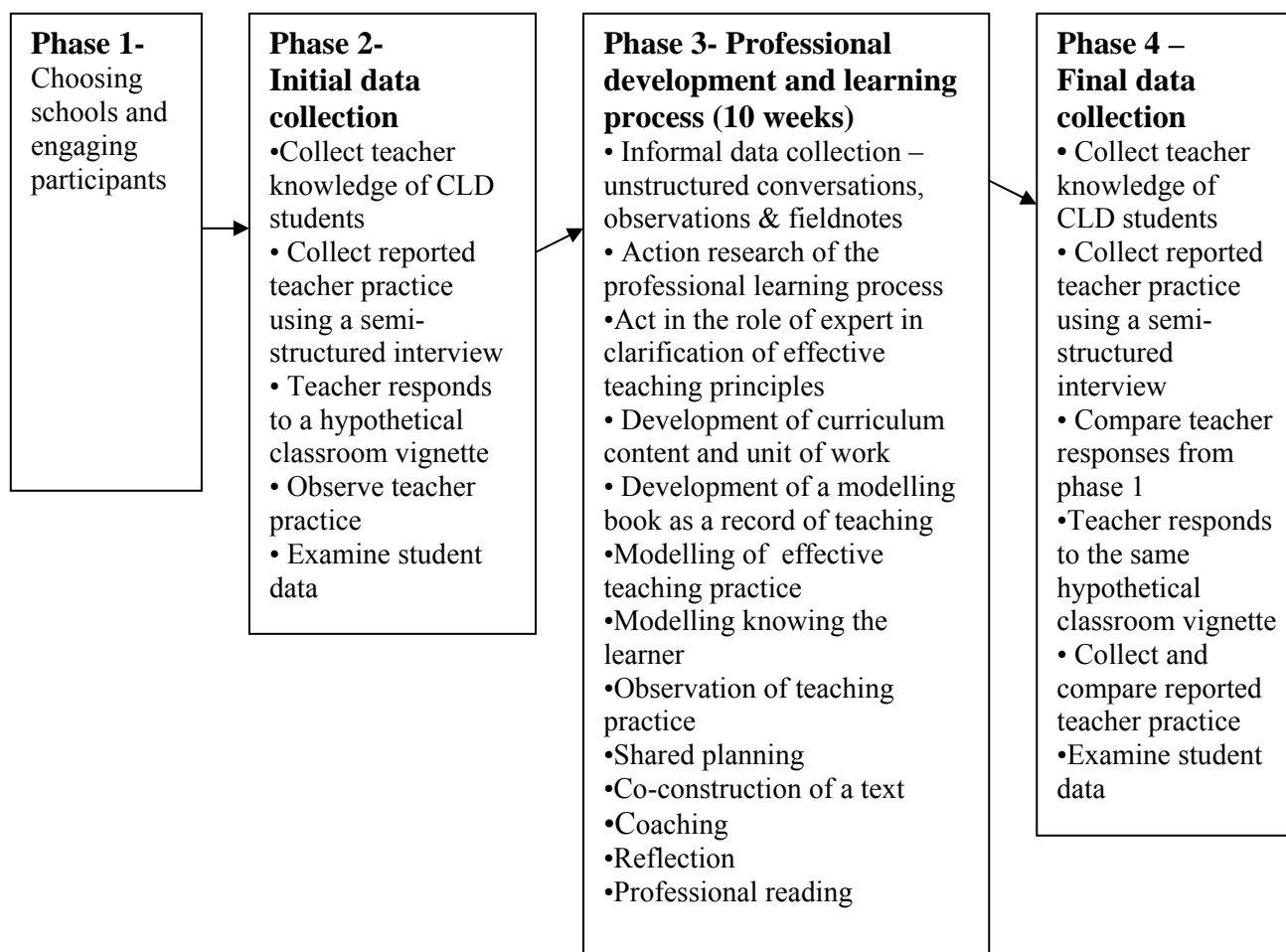
The value of Action Research is determined by the extent to which the methods and findings make possible improvements in practice (Burns, 2000). An important aspect of the model is the need for researchers to be reflexive and responsive, allowing for changes in actions as the research proceeds. Robertson (2005) considers reflexivity is achieved through sifting the data, re-reading the literature for new decisions or by being in constant discussion. Critical inquiry that achieves reflexivity, Robertson (2005) sees as mutually beneficial to the researcher and the researched as it comes out of a commitment to the value of self-awareness. And, as Mills (2003) reminds us, “we should accept the uncertainty of the journey” (p.2).

2.3 Research Design

Using the Action Research Spiral outlined above, I examined the two participating teachers’ understandings and strategies in supporting CLD learners and explored a variety of professional learning processes, changing and responding as required to the two contexts in which I was working. While facilitating the teachers’ professional learning I also reflected on and evaluated my own practice as an ESOL and Literacy adviser. It was a collaborative process, integrating both practice and research.

There were four key phases in the research design. These were; choosing the school and engaging the participants, an initial phase of data collection and teacher observation, the professional learning phase of researcher and teacher engagement in the professional learning process, and the final phase of data collection. These stages are exemplified in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: The research design process



Phase 1:

In the first phase of the research I was at an advantage in my role as ESOL adviser as I had knowledge about the student populations of schools in Christchurch. I approached two schools that have a significant proportion of culturally and linguistically diverse students, approximately thirty percent and fifty percent of students respectively. At the first school, North School, the principal recommended the teacher, Jane. At the second school, South School a colleague recommended the

teacher, Bella. Both teachers teach in year 5 and 6 composite classes, an age group identified because the students at this level have increasingly complex curriculum concepts and language to learn. At this age, new learners of English require very effective scaffolding to manage new concepts in their new language. I approached these two teachers as they were deemed by their schools to have appropriate qualities. They also had some well-established classroom management skills to ensure some basic and accepted teaching qualities and routines. I was aware of the need to act with openness and respect and to value the contributions from the teachers and students. I entered the school setting conscious of the ethical responsibilities of researchers. I gained access to the schools by approaching the principal with information about my research proposal. I wrote to the Principal and Board of Trustees of each school to seek permission to work with each teacher over the third term of 2007. I provided a detailed summary of my research proposal and ensured the participants were clear about the purpose of my research and their level of involvement. I sought permission from each teacher, ensuring confidentiality and anonymity in the process. Teachers were also assured that they were free to withdraw at any point of the process. The teachers, the principals, the board of trustees and the Christchurch College of Education ethics committee granted permission. *

See **Appendix 1** for an example of a letter seeking permission to work with the teachers.

See **Appendix 2** for an example of a consent form from a teacher.

It is important to note that both Bella and Jane volunteered to be participants in the research. Their willing involvement is a possible lever for teacher learning and change, but is not sufficient (Timperley et al, 2007). Jane and Bella reported a genuine desire to learn more about an area where they felt ‘out of their depth’ as a reason for their participation. Uncertainty of ESOL pedagogy, frustration around their current practice and lower levels of CLD student achievement were powerful reasons for these two teachers to feel committed to new teaching and learning, and acted as an initial catalyst for their engagement in the research.

*Please note that the College of Education subsequently became the University of Canterbury, College of Education.

Phase 2:

In phase 2, the initial data collection, a semi-structured, face-to-face interview was conducted. At this time, the teachers also responded to the hypothetical classroom vignette. An initial classroom visit and observation was carried out to gauge the classroom environment and start to learn the students' names. Initial discussion of the teaching foci also occurred.

I had already decided to frame the research around a specific unit (or units) of work, across one term. A focus on a specific unit of work provided a natural and 'bound' teaching period. It was a natural 'chunk' for teachers as it has a specific time allocation each day as well as a specific content focus for planning and delivery. It also provides a valuable context for examining the strategies and approaches used by each teacher with their class of students. The choice of curriculum focus for the term was already decided well in advance of my contact with both schools so I had no influence on this. Each school approached their curriculum plan in a different way. At North School in Jane's class I was to teach in the first unit of work (5 weeks), and then observe and give feedback during the second (new) unit of work. The process was sequential. At South School in Bella's class I was to teach in the first part of the unit of work (2-3 weeks), and then team teach with Bella, observe and give feedback as the term progressed in the (same) unit of work. The process involved more turn-taking. During the research period, I was present in each classroom each time the identified unit of work was taught. Usually each lesson would last an hour to an hour and a half. There were approximately 4 lessons each week, making a total of more than 50 hours of contact over the term in each classroom. Other data collection was carried out after school or in teacher release time.

Phase 3:

In phase 3, the in-class teaching and modelling occurred, and as a result of findings in the initial data collection, the teachers and I co-constructed an overview plan for the ten weeks of the term that would encompass the period of professional learning.

During phase 3, it was important to develop materials, resources and activities to support student learning in the selected units of work. I integrated specific CLD

teaching strategies directly into the classroom curriculum, modelling the process in my teaching sessions. For this I drew on the research-informed field of knowledge indicated in Chapter 1. In both classrooms almost the same strategies were modelled. Each teacher received information about the specific strategy in three ways: explaining the strategy, providing print material explaining the strategy, and in-class modelling of the strategy. Many of the strategies selected, commonly understood as effective within the ESOL teaching community were outlined in Chapter 1, section 1.4.3, pp 21-24. The specific strategies I selected to model included:

- Using learning intentions and success criteria;
- Using a modelling book to keep a record of class discussion and tasks;
- Demonstrating vocabulary teaching techniques (vocabulary notebooks, developing glossaries, developing word walls, vocabulary circle, matching tasks, listen up and vocabulary games);
- Creating a model text, identifying specific language features, highlighting the text, and group or class written construction of a new text;
- Using speaking frames and writing frames where ‘sentence starters’ were written to elicit full sentences from students;
- Collaborative and group work strategies (a jigsaw task, 3-2-1 oral language task, and think/pair/share oral language strategies);
- Graphic organisers that provided students with a visual framework for learning;
- Categorising tasks, barrier games, sequencing tasks, cloze activities and a dictogloss which focused students’ attention on specific elements of language and provided opportunities for small group or pair teaching; and
- Using differentiated tasks or differentiated texts with a wide range of learners

Information about these strategies is available from <http://esolonline.tki.org.nz>

Unstructured interviews were held after the in-class modelling sessions, to support teacher pedagogical content knowledge and discuss the selection and effectiveness of the strategies or approaches. These discussions were also used to frame my teaching decisions about the next steps in the unit. They also formed data relating to my understanding of teacher pedagogical content knowledge.

In both schools a large teachers’ topic book (modelling book) was used as a teaching tool to keep a record of learning. These modelling books became an important

resource for students, teachers and the researcher. Students could see the learning intentions, key vocabulary lists and any group-focussed tasks. Jane developed her own modelling book for her A4 Art unit and Bella added to mine in her teaching practice. This modelling book provided a useful reference in my informal discussions with teachers and was used by Jane for her student voice interviews. **Appendix 3** includes examples of the modelling books.

I also used information from the semi-structured interviews and the research-based evidence noted in chapter 1, section 1.6, pp 27-31, to inform my decisions about the content for the professional development. This included providing professional readings, in-class modelling of teaching, observation and feedback on teaching, shared planning of lessons, co-construction of model texts, co-construction of teaching and evaluation of student progress. During this period, I was able to ask teachers for feedback on the value and effectiveness of these professional learning processes, as well as monitor their uptake of ideas and suggestions.

Phase 4:

In phase 4, the final data collection phase, after the ten weeks of shared teaching, the semi-structured interview was re-administered and the hypothetical classroom vignette responded to again.

Despite undertaking a similar research process in each classroom setting, the teaching needs and professional development support required in each of these classrooms developed slightly differently. This was in keeping with an action research process where the situation and context, such as the language and learning needs of the students, the availability of resources, and the organization of the unit of work occurred in a different form in each school.

2.4 Setting and Participants

North School – Jane

Jane is in her twenties, an artist with a Fine Arts degree, who originally taught for two years as an art teacher in a secondary school setting. She decided to retrain as a primary teacher and is now in her fourth year of primary teaching. She recently won her first permanent position in her current school. She has taught in one other primary school prior to this appointment. From her teacher training Jane could recall one assignment related to diverse learners, and knew that she had kept some relevant notes. In her teaching, Jane has had little specialised ESOL professional learning opportunities, although she has had CLD learners in each of her classrooms. She reported that she had only two allocated staff meetings on ESOL in her teaching career. She has had the chance to be involved in other different professional development opportunities, namely staff meetings, occasional workshops and courses and in-depth professional development through the Numeracy Project.

North School is a large, urban school that has over 20 classroom teachers. It is a decile⁷ 9 full-primary school, catering for students from five to thirteen years. Jane works closely with a smaller syndicate of Year 5 and Year 6 teachers, attending administration and planning meetings on a weekly basis. Each teacher takes responsibility for leading the planning of specific units of work and providing resources to support the unit. Jane identified two other teachers at North school, who hold ESOL qualifications, with whom she can discuss specific ESOL issues if she needs to. North School provides an ESOL support programme for CLD students utilising the skills of a trained ESOL teacher and also a teacher-aide. Jane reported that minimal time is given to planning or discussion with the ESOL team to determine a teaching programme that best meets the needs of CLD students.

Jane has 32 students in her class, 13 of whom are identified as coming from linguistically diverse language backgrounds. At the start of the study, four CLD students were below the identified benchmark score of 112, and therefore met the

⁷ A decile rating is assigned to New Zealand schools to reflect the socio-economic status of the school community. A rating is assigned from 1(lowest) to 10 (highest).

required criteria to be eligible for Ministry of Education ESOL support funding. These four students receive one-to-one, in-class support from a teacher-aide for three half-hour periods per week. Jane was expected to meet the needs of the other CLD students within her classroom programme. Jane also identified two students with an English language background as having very high learning needs, a factor which added to the complexity of teaching the class.

Jane identified varying levels of achievement for the CLD learners in her class. She was able to draw on some 'normed' Progressive Achievement Tests (PATs), though these were administered once-yearly and did not provide the data required to draw conclusions about progress within her teaching year. She used Running Record data, but expressed concern with the validity of this in the area of checking student comprehension. Student writing samples showed varying levels of achievement.

North School chose two or three topics a term to fit with each learning area. In the term in which I was researching, the focus was on topics linked to the Social Studies and The Arts learning areas. Each member of the syndicate took turns to complete a written unit plan and provide some resources and ideas to others. I received a unit plan from the team, and a Social Studies booklet with a title '*Making Ends Meet: Earning a living in the slums of India*' (Warren, 2005) as a starting point for the first five weeks of the research period in which I would be responsible for teaching and modelling. Jane wrote the unit plan 'A4Art', for the second half of the research period to supply to her team and which was linked to a whole school Art exhibition Jane was organising. It also provided the teaching context for Jane to demonstrate her teaching practice.

Jane is a highly motivated teacher who is efficient and effective in her classroom. She reflects on her practice and is willing to take risks and try out new teaching ideas.

South School - Bella

Bella is in her thirties and trained as a teacher while her own children were very young. She already had a degree and completed her training by a short-course, distance option. She is now in her seventh year of teaching and at the time of my data

collection has only taught in her current school. Bella had no specialised ESOL professional learning opportunities in her training that she could recall. Despite having CLD learners in each class each year, Bella had not had any professional development in the ESOL field at all. She noted that the percentage of CLD students has increased significantly in the last three or four years in her school. Bella has had the chance to be involved in different professional development opportunities, and due to the policy of a previous principal these have mostly required some sort of in-depth, longer-term teacher commitment. Bella quoted ICT, the Numeracy Project, and The Arts as particular examples.

South School is a small, urban school that has eight classroom teachers. It is a decile 2 full-primary school, catering for students from five to thirteen years. Bella works with a group of four 'senior school' teachers covering the students in Years 4 to Years 8. While there are regular administration meetings, team meetings devoted to planning and teaching curriculum programmes are held infrequently. Once a term an in-depth discussion of planning for an integrated inquiry occurs and is recorded through a brainstorming process. The resulting mind-map becomes the written documentation and forms the overall direction of teaching for the term. South School provides an ESOL support programme for CLD students utilising the skills of a trained ESOL teacher, who also releases teachers in classes and is therefore familiar with the whole school programme. For six months the school has also been part of a Ministry of Education initiative, an Extending High Standards cluster with a focus on CLD students. Bella reported that effective ESOL withdrawal support is provided for students, but minimal time is given to shared planning or discussion of a teaching programme.

Bella has 21 students in her class, nine of whom are identified as coming from linguistically diverse language backgrounds. A small group of four CLD students are below the identified benchmark (score of 112) and therefore meet the required criteria to be eligible for Ministry of Education ESOL support funding. These four students receive two hours per week ESOL withdrawal support with the trained ESOL teacher. Bella was expected to meet the needs of the other CLD students within her classroom programme. Significantly, her class contains a range of English background students with high needs, including behavioural difficulties, social difficulties and learning

difficulties. The number of students entering or leaving her class during a school year is also an issue for her. Bella reported low levels of student achievement. She did not have any 'normed' assessment data available initially, but the low achievement levels were reflected in the students' exercise books.

At South School one integrated inquiry topic was chosen for each term. In the term in which I was researching the focus was linked to an upcoming school centenary. The term focus for Bella was the past 'One Hundred Years' and had a strong Social Studies thread. Specific aspects that were identified to be part of the focus were key events from 1908-2008, and changes in school life, transport and technology.

Bella is a highly enthusiastic, outgoing teacher who is a good participator in all school events. She also reflects on her practice and is willing to take risks and try out new teaching ideas.

2.5 Researcher position and perspectives

In establishing my position in the two research classrooms I had a range of roles: researcher, teacher, adviser, mentor and friend. These roles are sometimes referred to as insider or outsider roles depending on the position taken in the research setting (Bouma, 2000; Richards, 2005). In reality, the boundaries between the positions are complex and the boundaries are not clearly delineated (Merriam, Johnson-Bailey, Lee, Kee, Ntseane, & Muhamad, 2001). The position held by the researcher will influence the data collected and the theory developed. More importantly the position is likely to shift (Merriam et al, 2001). This was certainly the case for me as I read various situations and contexts and adjusted my work with the teachers accordingly.

The challenges of position, power and representation need to be acknowledged as a factor in the research. Essentially, I was an outsider in the classroom. I had not had any previous professional or personal contact with the teachers. In neither classroom was I formally introduced to the class, although I assume that there was discussion about my role with the teacher and students beforehand. However, I believe that I bring some similar frames of reference to the teachers in the study. We are all white, middle-class females, but I am older and have had more years teaching in a wider

range of contexts. We are all considerably different to the multi-ethnic group of children that makes up 30% and 50% of the classes.

The role taken by a researcher in an observation process can vary from covert to overt in nature (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). Non-participant observation takes place from afar, and aims to be as covert as possible, while a participant observation occurs when the researcher is an active, overt member of the research setting. My level of participation varied over the term, from leading the teaching (in-class modelling) to observing the teaching. Somehow I needed to be able to occupy the space of both an insider and an outsider as deemed necessary by the point and purpose of the research or teaching activity in which I was engaged. Even when taking a back step to observe teachers, it could be argued that my presence was still as a participant. I believe a researcher can never really be covert in a classroom.

Whatever the position I took, as teacher or observer or expert adviser, there is a need to acknowledge the role of privilege and power that affects the accuracy of the data when the researcher is present. At each point of the process my presence is likely to have some effect on the data collected, though I believe that the students accepted my presence as a teacher as part of the 'normality' of that term. Berry (2006) reminds researchers that they need to identify how they are situated in a study, but to ensure, "distancing for objective observations and perspectives" (p.107). She suggests that researchers need to be sensitive to participants' positions in the research and not to misrepresent them. I kept Bella and Jane informed about my research purpose and shared with them current thinking and tentative findings regularly to ensure they were treated as the professional equals they were.

In this study, my position as an adviser on sabbatical was well known by the teachers. The multiple roles between being an adviser and a researcher were not always straightforward. My status as a researcher was mixed in with that of teacher, adviser and perceived 'expert'. Yet I was no expert in the knowledge of these students. This became an issue for me when in one class especially the children were more difficult to manage and their behaviour meant that I had to forgo best practice as I saw it and maintain an orderly and functioning classroom. During the data collection I faced

challenges and experienced a mismatch of teaching and learning as I was searching to gain an understanding of the students' and teacher's perspective.

Being engaged in an action research process means a commitment to adaptation and change as the research proceeds. An adviser or researcher in in-depth professional learning with teachers needs to be very reflexive. I was required to plan, act, observe, reflect and revise my plans in a regular and on-going way. In the two school settings for this research, while having some key similarities, each school and class also had major contextual differences. Part of the process was to identify the teachers' constraints and how they coped with problems or responded to new ideas. This enabled me to explore and gain an understanding of the teachers' links between rhetoric and practice, an essential element current professional development and theory.

2.6 Sources of data

2.6.1 Introduction

A strategy of inquiry, as described in the research design above, connects a researcher to specific methods of collecting and analysing empirical data and material. The data collection methods and the specific tools used are appropriate to a researcher's methodological stance. I went about answering the research questions in a number of ways and used a range of different methods for gathering data. These data collecting techniques included participant observation and interviews. Typically in qualitative research, a researcher is faced with large amounts of data reported in a descriptive, narrative style, and must seek ways to manage and interpret what she sees (Burns, 2000; Mutch, 2005). In this study the amount of data collected was significant and each data set was treated in a different way. However, the same approach to thinking was used; that is, 'having an open yet an organised mind' (Stake 1995, p.68). It is generally asserted that the data collection tools used in action research need to cover the 3 e's – enquiring, experiencing, and examining (Mills, 2000, p.62). In this section I will outline the range of data collection tools that were referred to in the research design and used to build the evidence in this study. In this section I will consider:

- enquiring in the form of the semi-structured interviews, informal, unstructured interviews and a response to a hypothetical classroom vignette;
- experiencing in the form of in-class modelling and in-class observations; and the
- examining of documents or texts.

2.6.2 Enquiring - Asking questions

-Semi-structured interviews

Asking teachers questions is a key tool for gathering information about classroom practice (Burns, 2000; Mills, 2007). Enquiry, through in-depth, semi-structured interviews took place at the beginning of the research, before the professional learning programme started, at a mid-point, and at the end of the research. The purpose of the interviews was to gain information from each teacher about her class, including the achievement levels of the CLD student group, the teachers' self-perceptions of competence and confidence supporting CLD students, and their understandings of how to scaffold learning. The teachers preferred format for professional learning was also probed and served to provide information to build a relevant professional development programme. It also provided a means of comparing the starting point and end-point knowledge.

All interviews took place in the school setting, or at a place determined by each teacher. They were recorded with an audio, hand-held recorder. While the semi-structured interview had a set of predetermined guiding questions, it was open enough to allow for layers of meaning to be probed and allow for genuine 'enquiry' to take place. The interview was framed so that similar questions were linked together. Some questions were prepared in advance and followed a loose order or format as it was important be consistent and ask the same questions each time. This ensured that key areas of interest were covered. Some questions included:

- *What are some of the teaching strategies you use in your own classroom with your diverse learners? In what way do these strategies help your diverse students?*
- *What are the teaching strategies that you think are of most benefit to diverse students?*
- *What kinds of professional development do you find help your teaching practice?*

See **appendix 4** for a full list of the questions included.

A semi-structured interview is a useful data collection tool as it enables a more exploratory and probing conversation than a format, structured interview. It took place over a one and a half hours, so the quantity and quality of supplied information was significant. This in-depth form of discussion allows for the ‘espoused theory’ of the interviewee (Ministry of Education, 2008; Robinson & Lai, 2006; Schön, 1991). It was beneficial as a point of comparison to the classroom observations, but it is important to acknowledge that information from participants gained through interview may be partial or inaccurate (Walford, 2001).

I was seeking in-depth and honest opinions from the participants and used prompts, such as “Can you tell me more about that?” or “Why does this work for you?” to probe for greater depth of response when needed. Silence, an effective wait-time and body language were used to elicit as much information from each teacher as possible.

Having a shared understanding of the research questions and the purpose of the research was also a critical element of the constructed nature of the inquiry. This meant that when asking teachers questions in the interviews, I was likely to clarify *why* I was asking, or what my research intent or interest was. For example, “How do you change teachers’ practice, *that’s the question for me?*”. The semi-structured interview therefore provided a context for co-construction of understandings about effective teaching of CLD learners and effective professional development experiences.

-Unstructured interviews

An unstructured or informal interview was an opportunity to learn more from Bella and Jane in an informal way. It is a way of engaging in a conversation or dialogue with participants, and though relatively free in nature, it is conversation with a purpose. Lichtman (2006) states that, “You [the researcher] are not trying to be objective. You will take the role of constructing and subsequently interpreting the reality of the person being interviewed, but your own lens is critical” (p.117). Many opportunities for ‘enquiring’ occurred when situated in each teacher’s classroom. Informal conversations were important for passing on new information and for discussing relevant pedagogy in a continuous and on-going manner. They were also

used as a means for teachers to: reflect upon their learning, to provide feedback about the value of the professional development and for co-construction of the teaching programme.

Open questions such as ‘What went well in today’s teaching for your CLD learners?’ ‘What teaching strategies are you finding useful?’ acted as a starting point for an open and genuine evaluation of the teaching process. The teachers were encouraged to reflect on their own practice and to identify their own needs in their professional learning.

Through this semi-structured and unstructured interview process I was able to both create, and evaluate, the professional learning process. The ‘enquiring’ provided an opportunity to explore the realities of each teacher and to gain a sense of their perceptions about teaching CLD students. The fact that the professional learning started to look and feel different in each case, as a result of the enquiry, matches the expectation that underpins a social constructivist framework in qualitative research.

2.6.3 A hypothetical classroom vignette

As part of the initial and final interview process, a ‘classroom vignette’ was used as a context for discussing the teaching of CLD students (in a hypothetical classroom situation). In the classroom vignette, teachers were asked to read a description of a fictional year-5 class with a number of students from diverse language backgrounds. They were asked to write any teaching decisions they would make based on the given student profiles and achievement data. While the classroom vignette was fictional, teachers were reminded that their responses would provide an insight into ideas and strategies they held for teaching CLD learners.

The purpose of this data collection tool was to examine the match between teacher rhetoric (in the semi-structured interview) and their responses to the vignette. There is some evidence that exemplifying ‘cases’ has been a successful strategy for increasing pre-service teachers’ understandings about classrooms. Lundberg (1999) suggests that

using ‘cases’ in this hypothetical manner is particularly useful because it enables teachers to:

apply theoretical and practical knowledge to specific school contexts, reason critically about classroom dilemmas, develop meta-cognition about one’s teaching, and to value social, ethical, and epistemological growth (p.3).

Discussion and understanding of fictional cases in Lundberg’s work proved to be an effective tool for teaching and learning with pre-service teachers. His research used a different participant group, but as I was also examining teacher knowledge about specific situations (CLD teaching pedagogy) and encouraging critical reasoning, I thought it would be an interesting tool to use. Using the hypothetical classroom vignette at the initial and end points of data collection enabled a comparison of teacher responses over the ten-week professional learning period.

Taken in conjunction with other data collection tools, the classroom vignette did confirm each teacher’s ability to generalise and apply some ideas learned in the classroom into a fictional teaching situation. At the initial data collection, the quantity and detail of each teacher’s response was minimal, with approximately four suggestions given for each situation. The limited range of teachers’ responses and the depth of their understanding at the initial data collection point, guided my decisions about the professional learning process. It also provided a specific means of comparison from which to examine any shifts in reported teacher practice. At the end data collection point, teachers’ responses were more comprehensive both in quantity and detail, with approximately seven suggestions for each question. Please see **appendix 4** for the example of the hypothetical classroom vignette

2.6.4 Experiencing - Being there

-In-class modelling

Lichtman (2006) suggests that it is critical to study individuals and groups in their own environment. She states that this enables ‘a deep understanding of the social interaction and cultures of these groups’ (Lichtman 2006, p.138). When working in teacher professional learning it is important to be part of the teacher’s situation and to

experience some of their classroom complexity in order to build an understanding of teachers' viewpoints.

Mills (2000) element of 'experiencing' was evident through in-class modelling of teaching (with teachers completing an observation) and through observation of and feedback to teachers about their teaching. The choice of in-class modelling, as described in phase 3 of the research design, was designed to meet teachers' needs to see *relevant teaching practice in action*. Arguably, it is more difficult to teach students who you do not have a relationship with, but in this case I considered it to be an important part of the learning process for teachers. The easiest way to establish what I meant by some of the strategies and approaches I had discussed with Bella and Jane was to *show* them. It enabled me to model particular aspects I had noted as gaps in their rhetoric, or gaps in their teaching practice. In my teaching sessions I provided a lesson plan with the learning intentions, vocabulary and language focus and the steps through the lesson. The CLD teaching strategies were highlighted. There was an extra column kept blank on the plan for teachers to record strategies for CLD learners and principles of ESOL teaching as they were observed. Teachers were asked to write onto the session plan. The purpose of this document was to focus teachers' observations of my teaching but also became a valuable tool to ascertain what the teachers had noticed in my teaching and what they thought was of value to record.

-Observations of teaching

One way to examine the transfer of teacher knowledge into teacher classroom practice is to observe teachers. The observation process enables researchers to build a picture of effective teaching as it occurs. Thus, observations can be used to match what the teachers say they do, with actual classroom data. Observing Bella and Jane enabled me to see how each teacher had transferred her knowledge of teaching CLD learners into actual teaching practice. It also provided an insight into the strategies each teacher preferred or valued and enabled me to examine any differences in espoused theory and theory-in-use (Schön, 1991; Ministry of Education, 2008).

At first, when observing the teachers I used an open observation format to record important information about the patterns of teaching. I recorded the teachers' instructional purpose. I wrote down the teacher talk and teaching activities as the

lesson progressed through the various stages. I looked for effective teaching strategies of CLD students that had been modelled by me, identified during the professional development process or created independently by teachers. Discussion with each teacher occurred at the end of the teaching sessions. We would discuss why a particular strategy was used, why it was or wasn't successful and how it had contributed to student learning.

As the observations continued, it seemed beneficial to refine the observation focus more critically on the aspects of teaching considered to be effective for teaching CLD learners. I felt it would be of great benefit to have an observation framework that could potentially guide teachers and observers to critical elements of particular lessons or units of work. It became clear that it was difficult to observe and discuss aspects of the teaching process in abstract. It was sometimes difficult to recall parts of the lesson and I felt that video recording would not add to the mentoring relationship I was aiming to create. There was clearly a need to have a data collection tool that would help teachers and researchers frame their thinking and observations. With this in mind I developed a Teachers' Observation Framework: Language and Culture (TOF:LaC) which became an important outcome of the research.

-Teachers' Observation Framework: Language and Culture (TOF:LaC)

The purpose of an observation framework was not to provide a 'recipe' or fixed view of an effective lesson for a mainstream teacher with CLD students, but rather to act as a self-reflection or discussion tool. I sought information about observation protocols, but there are few examples available, especially related to primary teachers. Luke, Freebody, Shun, Lau & Gopinathan (2005) make the case that a systematic focus on teachers' and students' work in everyday classroom contexts is the *starting point for pedagogical innovation and change*. They describe the work of the Singapore Core Programme that captures features of classroom teaching and learning activities in Singapore classrooms. Observation and coding of classroom practice has been undertaken in order to make claims about what teachers actually 'do', and is seen as a process for recording complex classroom practice.

As mentioned in chapter 1, Echevarria, et al. (2000) developed 'The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) Model' in the U.S.A. Their observation

protocol provides teachers with a model of instruction in curriculum areas organised around teaching aspects that include lesson preparation, lesson delivery and lesson review and assessment. Teachers are awarded points for demonstrating particular features deemed to be important. They are ranked on a continuum from 0 to 4, depending on the level of evidence of selected behaviours, from ‘not evident’ to ‘highly evident’.

The observation framework that I developed to support the classroom observation process in my research aligns to the SIOP model described above, but is adapted to fit with the Principles of ESOL that were outlined in Chapter 1. These principles provide a framework for teachers and researchers to investigate the components of the effective teaching of CLD learners. It is intended that the observation framework be seen as a lens for viewing classroom interaction, with the needs of CLD students uppermost. It is a tool that can be used by teachers, or between teachers and adviser or for teacher self-reflection. It can be used at all levels of a primary school, and could be adapted for secondary schools. What is useful is that it is a tool to inform about effective practice for culturally and linguistically diverse learners. The observation framework exemplifies instructional practices that are critical for CLD students, but also mirrors high-quality teaching that benefits all learners. It is unlikely for all of the elements observed to be at a ‘high level’ in the early stages of a professional learning process. The observation framework is intended to act as a lever for informed discussion and is intended to enhance a professional learning process.

In using the ‘Teachers’ Observation Framework: Language and Culture’ (TOF:LaC) the observer would collect background information such as the school name, date, time of the day, teacher, class level and class size and the defining characteristics of the class, such as the number of English language learners. The observation framework contains 7 sections based on the 7 ESOL principles. Items under each principle are rated on a 5 point scale from 4 ‘highly evident’ to 2 ‘somewhat evident’ and 0 ‘not evident’. If aspects are not observed or not relevant to a particular lesson, there is a provision for not applicable (NA) to be used. It is best used with at least a half hour teaching time. Observers write any general notes under each heading first, including key statements used by the teacher and students which are noted as ‘evidence’. Data is transferred from note form to the ranked number format at the end

of the lesson. After the teaching session, or sequence of lessons, it is easy to use the information contained in the observation framework to get evidence for setting teacher actions. See **appendix 6** for the Teachers' Observation Framework: Language and Culture (TOF:LaC).

2.6.5 Examining the evidence: Documents

A wide range of documents were created in the pursuit of data. 'Examining' in this research occurred through examining written records such as teachers' planning, teacher tasks, the modelling scrapbook, student work, and field notes collected, including my own personal journal. Annotated classroom transcripts were also collected during classroom observations and the observation framework was used. These texts are all valuable sources of documentary evidence. In each case the written records are from primary sources, or first-hand accounts.

Personal observations and thoughts about the professional development process became data. This occurred in a systematic way through the use of field notes, including a reflective journal component. Field note data was extensive, with written notes from informal interviews, personal comments, reflections or observations about each part of the research. Over time the notes become more selective. Burns (2000) offers advice that, "field notes should be written up as soon as possible, and note-taking must be considered compulsory" (p.430). Bogdan and Biklen (1992) recommend that researchers develop three different types of field notes – descriptive, reflective and analytic. I followed suggestions for having an organised system for collating and managing the quantity of data (and paper) typical in qualitative research and created different files; transcript files, personal files and analytical files (Burns, 2000).

As well as personal and reflective field notes, I also had files of annotated classroom transcripts and teacher observation notes. I also had a written record of any informal discussions to be used as a tool for my reflections. Recording reflections, questions and analytical ideas was critical to this process. I included a column for researcher

questions and analysis as the data was transcribed. Maintaining a reflexive stance served as a prompt for 'next steps' on the action research cycle.

Another source of document data was teacher planning. Planning is open to different understandings, so clarification and confirmation of the accuracy in interpretation was ascertained from the teachers. Examining teachers' planning enabled a cross-reference between their knowledge of teaching CLD students, the evidence and intentions reflected in the planning process.

2.7 Data analysis

There is no single way to undertake data analysis and no single interpretation, so for any researcher the revelations selected are bound by her ethnographic experiences (Mutch, 2005). The combination of multiple methods and perspectives can add depth and rigour to an investigation. The layers of data, and understandings generated from them, serve to build knowledge and to affirm or refute new ideas or ways of thinking (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Taylor & Bogdan, 1998). Through the rigour of data collection and analysis I hope to make some valid claims, justified by the evidence. Robinson and Lai (2006) suggest that rigour can be attained in qualitative research through the pursuit of claims based on description, interpretation and theories of action. They suggest that accuracy requires careful record keeping and attention to detail and that a well-established audit trail of data is important. "What is important with respect to validity is to show that inferences drawn from the data are relevant and reasonable" (Robinson and Lai, 2006, p.61). In each set of data I worked to identify the particular patterns, categories and themes against the lesson intentions and effective CLD teaching strategies I was seeking. Through this research, data analysis has been a continuous process. It is rigour and believability that can be claimed, as an alternative to validity and reliability (Mutch, 2005).

An initial part of the data analysis process involved identifying and coding the data sets. The interviews were electronically recorded and transcribed. Transcripts were photocopied and then identified with a code. Comments were identified using a school code [NS] for North School or [SS] for South School. An interview number was used [1 or 2 or 3] as well as a 'content' or 'theme' number that referred to the

categories into which the data had been sorted. For example, 1=Knowledge of the learner, 2=Teaching, 3=Professional development, 4=School information, and 5=Teacher information. Thus, information learned from the teacher at South School, in the second semi-structured interview about her current teaching approaches would be coded [SS22]. Recording of informal conversations took place in the form of field notes that were written up immediately after the conversation into my personal journal. They were identified by the school initials and date recorded. For example, a comment by Jane would be coded as [NSPJ16.8], with the 16 and 8 referring to the date of the 16th of August. This coding aided retrieval and provided a trail of data. It enabled me to trace notes back to the data source to facilitate cross-checking and confirmation with other sources of data when required. Transcripts were provided to participants for affirmation of contents. This process ensures some *trustworthiness* for the data and increases the claims for validity (Mutch, 2005).

As soon as possible after an interview or meeting my handwritten notes were written on the computer with greater elaboration and detail. I also transcribed the interviews myself, in order to have a thorough knowledge of the teachers' comments. The continuous process of typing and listening meant that significant thoughts and themes emerged right from the beginning of the research process. Transcripts and other written documentation, once coded, were photocopied so that they could be cut and pasted into categories that emerged during the analysis process. This was possible by examining key words as well as themes that were used by participants. It was an inductive process, with the themes or categories emerging from the data. Some parts of the documentation could fit into more than one category. Consideration was also given to the way questions were answered, with cross-checking of responses to other data sources to search for consistencies and inconsistencies. It was important to probe the data in search of some of the deep assumptions that teachers held about their teaching, about professional development and about their culturally and linguistically diverse learners. It was also important to return to theoretical ideas and literature to check for links or differences in the data sets. The data was re-examined many times, an advantage as some themes and ideas were slower to take a clear form.

Each of the sources of data described above has enabled me to construct a picture of the practice of Bella and Jane. I hope that I have been able to accurately and fairly

represent their perspectives in this research, as what the teachers ‘see and know’ comes from a different perspective than mine. I was conscious of the uniqueness of each teacher and her teaching context as part of the analysis process, so attributes relevant to each teacher are described within the research findings. While I can make no claims to the generalisability of these results to other teachers of CLD learners in different teaching contexts, it is possible to describe the classroom setting as I found them.

My methods have enabled me to gain a mere ‘snapshot’ of two teachers. This brief, candid glimpse has enabled me to understand a little of their teaching of CLD learners, and slices of classroom life at a particular point in time. I do not purport to have gained large amounts of new knowledge but did gain some insights. The insights gained about each context about the effective teaching strategies for CLD learners influenced the professional learning programme, and enabled deeper understandings about how to be more effective as a facilitator of professional learning and development.

2.8 Researcher perspectives

While the teachers have a particular view about teaching CLD students, it is inevitable that I am also constructing knowledge based on my own individual experiences and beliefs. As indeed are you, the reader of the research. Radnor (2002) states “The researcher’s orientation is an outcome of what interests and motivates and it provides the impetus for the style and thrust of the investigation” (p.23). In this section I will set some biographical detail to provide an insight into my own position, enabling the reader to gain a personal view of my own assumptions and ideas as I engaged in this research process.

My previous experiences have shaped the approaches I take and the assumptions I hold. Sometimes when we are older and reflect over periods of time, we become more aware of the decisions and events that have shaped us in important ways. I was not always aware at the time, the impact that some life experiences would have, or how they would eventually shape the sort of teacher and person I am. I did not always know about teaching students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.

In fact I shudder with embarrassment at some early teaching memories. In 1980, as a first year teacher, the first wave of ‘boat people’ from Cambodia and Vietnam were repatriated to New Zealand. I remember the panic of a teaching colleague when she was told she would have a new Cambodian student in her class. Her cries of ‘help, I don’t know how to teach non-English speaking background students’ were largely unheeded. My colleague, Muriel, was ahead of her time and the best teacher in that school to be offered the excitement and challenge of this new student who was perceived to be so ‘different’. I remember her sourcing early readers and creating books for Yeng. I remember her keeping us updated on Yeng’s progress all year, and of the amazement she frequently proffered about his learning. I remember thinking ‘I’m glad it’s not me’. I felt ill-equipped to teach that student. Later, experiences of travelling, and the valuable life lessons learned by finding myself away from the safety of the familiar, taught me much. Teaching in the London Borough of Hounslow as a teacher during the mid to late 1980’s was a major turning point. Being a ‘kiwi’ teacher in London was not uncommon, but it helped me realise the mismatch between my own assumptions and that of my students. Nothing was certain anymore, including the curriculum I proudly taught. How relevant was it to these learners?

I still watch with concern as teachers, with the best will in the world, miss the valuable teaching opportunities afforded to them by the expertise of children in their classrooms. It is this barrier that I wish to minimise and which has led to this dissertation. I don’t have many answers, but I do have a desire to learn more about teaching students who sometimes find themselves in the bottom layer of statistics. Some teachers still have some of the fears I had early in my teaching career, but thankfully our understanding, empathy and knowledge about the value and challenge of culturally and linguistically diverse learners has grown immensely.

Using an action research methodology I have planned, acted, observed, reflected and adapted or changed my plans as situations and conditions changed through the research process. I have constructed a story from the teachers’ stories.

Chapter 3. Findings – Telling the story

In this chapter I will report the findings of my work with Bella and Jane that emerged out of the research design reported in Chapter 2. The findings will provide insight into the teachers' knowledge and ability to respond in culturally appropriate ways and to use effective teaching strategies to build CLD student learning. The findings will also offer insight into the professional learning process, what teachers valued and what they transferred into their own classroom practice. Also, findings that show how the teachers' responses impacted on the development of the professional learning programme will be presented. Improved understanding of the teaching process with CLD learners should lead to improved teaching practice. Improved understanding of the professional development process should lead to more effective support for teacher learning. I use the three research questions to present these findings.

3.1 To know you is to teach you - *How do teachers make sense of culturally diverse learners and what do they view as effective practice for these learners?*

3.1.1 Knowing the learner: Identifying and defining student diversity

In this research, one way that the professional development and learning programme impacted on teacher knowledge was through the knowledge gained about learners in each class. 'Knowing the learner' requires knowledge about learner histories, languages, prior experiences and family situations. It is well established in the literature outlined in Chapter 1, that teachers need to have an encompassing knowledge of their learners in order to identify their needs and teach them effectively (Bishop, 2003; Delpit, 1995; Garcia, 2002; Gay 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Ministry of Education, 2006a). So what did Jane and Bella know about their learners?

I asked both teachers to tell me about the cultural and language backgrounds of the students in their class. They were also asked to define culturally and linguistically diverse students, or ESOL students, a term they more commonly used. At the start of the research, neither teacher could give an accurate picture of the cultural and/or language background of some students in her class. They found it difficult to get the

name of the languages the students spoke, and even in some cases the country of origin. For example, one student at South School was identified as Cambodian, but was actually from the Philippines. Another student (of Chinese background) was named with the Korean students. These findings echo Hall and Cajkler, (2008) that teachers lack information on students' language backgrounds.

Through the professional learning process we identified half of Bella's class and one third of Jane's class as using a language other than English in some contexts outside of school. For some children this language use was one hundred percent of their home interactions, for others it was limited to specific cultural events and holidays with relatives. Teachers sourced some school information in order to answer my questions, but did not always have this knowledge right at their fingertips. Information about the contexts and the frequency that students used their heritage languages had to be sourced from the students, and was not available in any school files. Each teacher asked the students, trying to build a comprehensive understanding of students' language(s) use. I suggested to the teachers that by gaining this sort of accurate information we would be better able to meet CLD students' learning needs and begin to understand their pathways of progress and achievement.

It is important to note, however, that lack of teacher information does not equate to teacher indifference. Both teachers exhibited a strong empathy towards their learners. Bella's caring attitude and strong desire to help was recounted in her personal involvement with a family from a refugee background outside of school. It was also exemplified at North School when I noted Jane questioning one child about the safety of his relatives in Greece as the country was being swept with bushfire.

During the semi-structured interviews I asked teachers to create 'a definition of CLD learners' as a means of investigating teachers' assumptions. The teachers tended to talk using the term 'ESOL', and their definitions at first were very narrow with a particular focus on students' proficiency in English. For example, in the first interview at North School, Jane suggested that just the students who are very new to learning English, that is those who had been identified as being eligible for Ministry of Education funding, belonged to the CLD grouping. At South School Bella also identified similar students. In the final interviews, Bella and Jane showed an increased

understanding of the target students of the research through their use of a ‘wider’ definition.

Gaylene: What is your definition of a culturally and linguistically diverse student?

Bella: Someone speaking English as a second language.

Gaylene: anything else?

Bella: No, but because of this [PD] it has changed how I view it. Because I would have thought that children that were like A (a boy from Somalia) in my class, I wouldn’t have thought there was a need there. [SS31]

Gaylene: What is your definition of a culturally and linguistically diverse student?

Jane: Well, (pause) they are a child in a mainstream classroom who is learning English as a second language and speaking a different language at home than they do when they come to school.

Gaylene: When I asked in the first interview, I had a sense you were just thinking of the children who had low levels of English fluency.

Jane: (Yeah) I think I have widened the view actually. [NS31]

Bella and Jane’s expansion of their definition was encouraging, but it is still not wide enough. Their definition has an underlying view that CLD learners are defined by (English) language rather than culture. If teachers restrict their identification of the CLD students and define students purely in terms of their level of English, not only is this a limited viewpoint, but possibly a deficit one. A focus only on English language proficiency, without accounting for a full and total view of the whole learner, limits a students’ identity (Bishop & Berryman, 2006; Cummins, 2007; May, et al., 2004). This affects the teachers’ understanding and view of the learner as well as the pedagogical approaches and practices utilised in the classroom.

3.1.2 Knowing the learner: Identifying student outcomes

Evidence of student outcomes, both social and academic outcomes, is linked to improvements in teacher practice (Alton-Lee 2003; Timperley et al. 2007). In this research, student information and data was used as a critical lever in the professional

learning process. While it is not part of this research to measure achievement outcomes of CLD students using standardised data, it was a feature of the professional learning programme to closely examine and interpret the data that was available to the teachers. I raised the issue of CLD student achievement with Bella in her initial interview. At the time Bella reported:

If you look at my class, those (CLD) children are actually achieving well.

Those 5 ESOL are my better ones, so if I looked at my top 10, half of them are ESOL. I wouldn't have actually thought they needed extra assistance. [SS11]

For Bella, CLD students were deemed to be 'achieving well' when she compared them to the non-ESOL students in her class. Later, as Bella and I worked together to analyse data and enter students' new STAR⁸ results into South School's student management system, I noted in my personal journal:

Bella is shocked with the results. No child in the class is higher than a Stanine 5, and there is little evidence of progress since the first data collection in March. There are a high proportion of students on critical scores. When I questioned why more CLD students are not receiving the ESOL funding to which they are entitled she told me they are using a school cohort, not national cohort as their trigger and at South School the ESOL children are the 'top of the class' and therefore deemed to be less needy. [PJ31.8]

It appeared that Bella had lower expectations of the ability of students at South School, possibly based on her assumptions linked to the decile rating of the school. The general low achievement of all students might have masked the low achievement of the CLD learners, making them less visible to Bella. Although there are issues around the use of standardised test with CLD learners, a teachers' understanding of the notion of 'national cohort' (as noted in Chapter 1) is needed to explain CLD students' patterns of progress compared to their peers. Bella used her school-based knowledge of student achievement to decide who qualified for Ministry of Education (MOE) funding. This left CLD students who did actually qualify for extra support not receiving it. In the final interview, Bella again referred back to the achievement of her CLD learners when we discussed their potential.

Gaylene: They could be underachieving their potential ...

⁸ STAR – Standardised Test of Achievement in Reading. NZCER

Bella: Well they are, but not in comparison to my class. But like you said in national cohort they are. Even though I think they are fluent and they understand, they're not. [SS31]

Here Bella shows she has changed her frame of reference to the national cohort. The focus on student data through the professional learning process seems to have impacted on her understanding.

At North School, when Jane examined the student achievement data she had available, it confirmed that the small group of four students she had originally identified from CLD backgrounds were achieving 'well below cohort'. However, another, larger group of six CLD students was also achieving 'just below cohort', but had not been previously considered by Jane to be in need of specialised English language support. In Jane's class these students became an important part of a target group in the teaching focus over the research period.

It seems that at the start of the research, neither teacher had closely examined the standardised data for students' reading achievement they had collected. In both classes there were some CLD students achieving at Stanine 3 and Stanine 4, an indication of below-average achievement. Bella and Jane had initially considered these students to be managing the taught curriculum and 'doing OK'. Their results had not been used to trigger eligible students MOE funding, or to identify extra support for students.

Through the professional development, teachers' attention focussed on formative aspects of assessment as well the standardised test results described above. As part of the planned professional development focus, I asked teachers to identify the learning goals and student outcomes in the unit of work. At the start of the research, neither Bella nor Jane had a clear view of the specific outcomes. They had not identified any language learning outcomes within the unit of work, nor could they clearly articulate what the evidence of student learning would be. They had not considered CLD learners' achievements within the whole teaching programme. While it was not the only learning outcome identified, both teachers decided that an outcome for students would be an extended piece of writing. The professional learning was then directed to focus on the explicit features of the identified writing outcome. In Bella's class this

was an information report and in Jane's class a formal description. In Bella's class I noted in my personal journal:

The students shared their written reports aloud. The final outcome, an information report, is well structured by the class. It is the most effective piece of work I have seen in their books or on the walls. [PJ20.9]

The students' results seemed to be a direct outcome of the teaching strategies used by Bella in her teaching, and as a result of her clarity about the learning outcomes developed through the professional learning programme. In Bella's class (Student C) commented to me that the '100 Years' topic, the teaching focus of the research, was different to the usual class work, and much harder. In my personal journal I ponder whether this is because of clarity about the learning outcomes, a greater variety of teaching strategies, and a higher level of expectation that has been set this time.

At North School, Jane commented that she had never looked so closely at the writing process before and how pleased she was with the final outcomes of the students' work. All CLD students had successfully completed the writing tasks. Jane examined the students' writing noting the high level achieved by all. She also commented:

The children's work had moved from the third person to the first person as they constructed their description and they had found it difficult to maintain the objective third person view. [PJ20.9]

Jane had scaffolded the writing tasks effectively to ensure CLD student success, but I also felt reassured that she noticed, and commented on, specific features of their writing. This showed that the close focus on the appropriate language features in the professional development had increased Jane's personal knowledge of the structures of the English language.

The findings from both teachers show that a focus on student outcomes, having clarity about the expected outcomes of teaching as well as examining standardised achievement data was extremely beneficial.

3.1.3 Knowing the learner: Culturally responsive teaching

There is support from many researchers and writers for the need for teachers to be culturally responsive, as testified by the deep and wide sources of related literature

noted in the Chapter 1 (Banks, 2007; Garcia, 2002; Gay, 2002,McNaughton 2002; Skutnab-Kangas, 2007). *The New Zealand Curriculum* has a clear intent that teaching is reflective of the diverse communities the school serves. The environment that is created in each classroom and the content of the taught curriculum, is central to our understanding of effective practice for CLD learners. Yet the significance of this theme only emerged as my data analysis proceeded. It came to consciousness in an uncomfortable manner, at first its ‘silence’ was its significance. It was easy to teach what we (the teachers) knew and decided was important, therefore downplaying student knowledge and experiences. For Bella and Jane to bring students’ lives into the classroom, they were required to make a concerted and explicit effort. So what did the findings show about being a culturally responsive teacher?

-The physical classroom environment

One visual indicator of culturally responsive teacher practice is the physical classroom environment. It is likely that elements of cultural diversity are represented in surroundings; in the visual elements of displays and in the multi-lingual language resources. Although this was not widely noted as an important feature in Chapter 1, it was highlighted as a principle of effective teaching in some research (Gay, 2000; Parker-Jenkins et al., 2004).

Bella and Jane’s classrooms were very typical of many primary classrooms. They were set out with students seated at tables in groups. There was a mat area and other specific areas for working on the computers, art equipment etc. In Bella’s class on my arrival there was prominence given to a display showing an inquiry process, but no visual visible evidence that reflected I had entered a classroom with many diverse students. On my first visit to Jane’s classroom I noted in my reflective journal some of the resources and displays.

I arrived early and the class was still in the library, so I had plenty of time to look around. On display are question frames (Bloom’s Taxonomy) and a school-created research pathway. There are a few words in Japanese, Maori and English on the wall. [PJ18.7]

It was good to see some visual acknowledgement of student diversity in Jane’s classroom, although later I felt it was minimal considering the range of student diversity in her class.

-The classroom languages environment

The importance of heritage languages for learners and for learning is well established (Barnard, 2003b; Garcia et al. 2006; May, 2002). This underpins the notion of being a culturally responsive teacher. The strategies I selected to use with teachers, and interactions I had with students, all began with the understanding of enhancing heritage languages at the same time as students acquired the academic language of school. Both teachers reported that students showed embarrassment if asked to use their home languages in the classroom. I saw no evidence to support this claim while I was there. While students' use of their home languages in class was not openly discouraged in the classrooms, neither was it actively encouraged or used as a specific teaching strategy to bridge new learning. The classrooms both reflected the powerful pressure for English only (Delpit, 1995: Wong-Fillmore, 1991).

Of significance was that neither class had any evidence of 'tools' such as bilingual dictionaries or bilingual glossaries that would support CLD student learning. As the units of work developed one of my strategies was to source or create bilingual material and to increase teachers' awareness of their value, openly talking about the use of heritage languages as a means to enhance student learning. When I asked students for key vocabulary in their languages, they could not always tell me, raising the issue of their personal level of competence in their heritage languages. Frequently they were able to find out, with 'home' or 'the internet' cited as valuable sources of help. Bella reported that Student F (from Romania) revealed to her that he used a bilingual dictionary at home with his family to help him with homework. She had not been aware of this previously.

-The classroom curriculum

As explained previously, the choice of units of work were already decided well in advance of my contact with the schools. This is frequently the case for teachers too, in that there are many occasions when they are required to teach a school curriculum pre-determined by a syndicate or management team. It might appear on the surface therefore that there is little choice for teachers to include learners' prior knowledge to enhance student learning, but this is not the case. I looked for a range of ways to

connect to students' lives explicitly in my own modelling of teaching, and I challenged each teacher to do the same.

In advance of the research, when I attended the South School planning meeting for the 'Past One Hundred Years' unit I recorded some of the specific ideas and suggestions discussed, which included covering a decade a week, incorporating changes in technology and occupations and answering the 'big' question *Which decade would you choose to live in and why?* In my personal journal after the meeting I wrote:

Since leaving the planning meeting, my most memorable feeling is of the vague 'talking around the topic' that has been done this afternoon. No one seemed to be writing much. No one mentioned the different experiences of much of the school community and families in considering their history over the past 100 years. [PJ26.7]

I was aware that I would need to draw on a wide number of students' prior knowledge in order to support new learning. I raised the issue with Bella in the first interview highlighting that at South School a large number of the students and their families had none of the first-hand knowledge about New Zealand history, schooling experiences, technology or transport assumed in the teachers' planning meeting. I wanted to show how the assumptions used in a unit of work should be questioned. It is problematic if teachers plan and teach based on their own cultural standpoint or point of view (Delpit, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

Bella created some resources about schooling over the past one hundred years using visuals, but the photos all depicted either early New Zealand classrooms or images from England. Despite our earlier discussion, there was no mention of students' backgrounds and experiences in the early part of her teaching. I broached the subject again with Bella. She agreed to ask the children about their experiences of school in Korea, Romania, China and Somalia, telling the students that she wanted them to share their knowledge as experts after they had discussed the ideas at home. Bella later referred to the lesson as "very successful", commenting how much she had learned and how she could see the success in her students' eyes.

Bella: but did you see their eyes sparkle, they sort of went .. yea and ..and .. and their eyes were literally sparkling. We probably could have spent even

more time talking about that with the class. It was a way to tap into their cultures and to talk more about their schooling. [SS31]

It had been possible to integrate a culturally responsive focus easily into one small part of the South School unit, and Bella's effort had been rewarded.

At North School, as noted previously, I was presented with a unit plan and a Social Studies resource, *Making Ends Meet: Earning a living in the slums of India* (Warren, 1995) as the general framework for the unit. The suggested resource seemed inappropriate to me. It was published in 1995 and while it has some good activity ideas, it presented the comparison of another culture (India) in what I felt was a negative, impoverished light. I phoned Jane to express my concern about the messages and stereotypes in the provided text. She justified the choice of resource and implied teacher workload as an issue when she commented, "I think we are coming from trying not to reinvent the wheel". [PJ1.8] Jane did agree that it was no problem for me to digress from the resource and the unit plan provided. Of note was the amount of time in planning and making resources in order for me to redevelop this unit. I sourced a modern text covering a more appropriate, wide-range of employment opportunities in Mumbai, highlighting a range of occupations (a jeweller, police-inspector, street hawker and dhaba wallah) and the way employment in India and New Zealand shares common needs. I also made as many links to other cultures and their forms of trading as possible. I drew on CLD students' experiences including swapping, trading, bartering, buying and selling. The wide range of student experience and knowledge was remarkable. In one particularly successful lesson students' role-played their experiences of bartering, showing their expertise at this process. For some New Zealand born students this was a revelation. The 'expert' CLD students were the holders of this specific knowledge but there was benefit for all students as understandings of 'trading' were expanded. However, this only occurred because opportunities were provided for it.

Later at North School, after looking at Jane's A4Art unit plan in the second half of the term, we discussed the ways that the children's backgrounds and experiences might differ from that which she had assumed in her original planning. Jane was very open to this discussion and could see pitfalls in her unit where she wanted to look at specific New Zealand artwork and to explore concepts such as 'kitsch'. She realised

that the overall concepts were difficult, and that the New Zealand examples (buzzy bee, plastic tiki etc) would not necessarily provide a known context for many students in her class. Jane chose to search the internet for relevant art and ‘kitsch’ pictures from other cultures (Greek, Korean, and Chinese) to incorporate into her lessons. Observation of the lesson showed an animated and engaged response from students, particularly those from diverse language and cultural backgrounds. Sourcing the extra material, Jane revealed, had not taken very long and she felt it had been a critical factor in the overall participation and achievement levels of students in her Arts-based unit. Jane felt well rewarded for her effort because of the responses she got from her students.

Even when there was clear potential for making connections to students’ lives within the units of work, teachers didn’t always do so. They seemed to need reminding and support to make cultural or language links. However, even after taking small steps, teachers expressed a greater awareness. In the mid-point interview Bella showed she had been thinking about culturally appropriate teaching.

We should actually bring in the other cultures to support them in the classroom. I should really, shouldn’t I, for the kid’s sake. [SS21]

In the final interview Bella again returned to this theme. She made reference to parents and also to staff at the local Ministry of Education office as a potential source of support.

Bella: we should actually bring in the other cultures to support them in the classroom. Or even inviting the people at the Ministry and getting them to come in. And I don’t know how, I don’t know how to appreciate their cultures in the normal day, because there is so much to do in your normal day... how do we bring that in to it? [SS31]

Here Bella seems to suggest that it was not possible for her to have an impact on the cultural knowledge in the classroom, but that ‘others’ could do this for her. She also suggested ‘lack of time’ as a reason for non-inclusion of ‘culture’ into her units of work. When questioned at the end of the research period Jane and Bella theorised about why diverse cultures and backgrounds were not easily incorporated into their own teaching, or that of others in their school.

Gaylene: Why do you think it is a barrier for teachers to draw students' cultures into the classroom then?

Jane: Because they don't think about it. I think that is it. I think, you know, we have got this to do and this to cover and ... We've got all the focus on something new, whether it sounds fine, or some different strategy that we are using and I think we tend to forget the kids. Well for me, I can only speak personally, I think my focus always go narrower in those times when I'm having to learn something new. I'm wanting to sort of keep some control of and it's probably my own experience rather than actually broadening it to where the children are at. Am I making sense? [NS35]

Bella: I know one teacher that probably wouldn't ask about their [students'] culture because they don't want to know. But I don't think I have that barrier, cos I'm interested in other cultures. You have to *want* to know. I don't think you can make a teacher want to know unless you specifically said, this *has* to be taught. [SS35]

This issue was clearly relevant to both teachers and both schools, though each teacher came to a different conclusion about the reason for not drawing students cultures into the class. Jane thought it was related to pressures from the curriculum and the new learning that is constantly required. Bella thought it was related to teacher attributes, such as their interest in CLD learners.

3.1.4 Knowing the learner: teacher expectations and beliefs

The research evidence shows teachers' expectations are powerful determiners of student success (Hall & Bishop, 2001; Gibbs, 2003). Initially the teachers revealed their belief that CLD students could not achieve the same levels as other students. The general perception was of students as 'language poor', needing to be fluent in English before they became involved in the classroom tasks planned for their English speaking peers. There was no suggestion that the students had less cognitive ability, but that somehow their English fluency strongly impacted on their learning. For example, at the initial interview Jane commented, "honestly – I generally expect less of them". [NS12] One of Jane's initial teaching suggestions was to "use activities that would require few language skills". [NS12] The vignette response from Bella

provided evidence of her understandings when she linked ESOL and special needs students together and drew comparisons between their similar learning needs. This is generally not accepted as a valid comparison. Inappropriate expectations for CLD learners compromise their progress in both language and curriculum knowledge (Clay, 1998; Cummins cited in Gibbons, 2002; McNaughton, 2002). While each teacher showed slightly different beliefs, each had an element of ‘low expectations’ as discussed in Chapter 1, in relation to deficit theorising (Carter, 2003; May & Janks, 2004).

Effective professional learning challenges teachers’ prevailing beliefs (Timperley et al. 2007). One specific strategy I used to challenge teachers’ expectations, and to influence their beliefs, was through a student voice interview. Teachers were given a set of five questions and asked to elicit a sample of CLD students’ views of learning, including the barriers and supports provided in the classroom. The intention was to improve teachers’ knowledge and influence their perceptions through in-depth conversations with their CLD learners. I sensed that Bella completed the student voice interview in the belief that the information was for me, not for her. When asked, she did not see a need to keep a copy of the information. Jane, however, found the student voice interview valuable. She reported that she enjoyed interviewing her students one-to-one about their learning. She was also able to see that the information she gained from CLD students showed evidence of her teaching.

Gaylene: Have you made a difference to the CLD students’ learning this term? How do you know?

Jane: Yes. The student voice interview showed the evidence of making a difference. When I interviewed (Student D) he used the key language in the one-to-one situation. Also he contributed and understood in the class. [NS33]

Later, Jane adapted the student voice format, using her teacher’s modelling book with students to discuss her teaching and their learning. Jane valued the information gained about the learner.

Jane: I went through the book with (student E) and I said ‘what did you find useful?’ She told me... ‘Oh this because of this reason, not that because of that reason’. I thought this is so easy I can just sit down and talk with you about it! [NS33]

By the end of the research Jane was using the responses of her CLD students as a target group to ‘check’ on her own teaching effectiveness. In other words, she wanted to check that her CLD learners were accessing the curriculum.

Jane: We have used them (student interviews) as the benchmark for teaching, and interviewing them has really helped me understand what they are thinking and what has helped them learn. [NS33]

The student voice interview, in Jane’s case, became a very important part of the professional learning process and seemed to raise her expectations of the students. She had been able to engage students in a meta-cognitive conversation about their learning and had been pleasantly surprised about the depth of information she had learned from the exchanges. This example shows the impact of a particular professional learning activity. It led me to consider in what way a teacher’s uptake and adaptation of facilitator suggestions was critical to the professional learning process. This will be discussed further in section 3.3, pp 95-97 below.

By the end of the research period both teachers understood that they should have a good knowledge of the backgrounds of their students. When asked, what does knowing the learner mean, Bella admitted that she fell short on this knowledge. She believed the pressures of time in a busy school day made it difficult. In her final interview, Bella commented:

so I need to know where they have come from and their culture and their background... and I don’t. It is very difficult to find the time actually. When I have conversations with them it’s lovely, but it doesn’t happen often. But I don’t get the time, even in a class of 20 I don’t get the time to have a private conversation.’ [SS31]

Underpinning this comment, it seems that Bella understood that spending time with students and talking to them was an integral part of knowing the learner. She just did not think that it was particularly easy to achieve this.

Similarly by the final interview, Jane reflected that one-to-one time talking to a child was important. However Jane had come to the opposite viewpoint of Bella, suggesting that it was actually very simple.

Gaylene: And I'm thinking, how can you bring children's lives on a day-to-day basis into the room?

Jane: I think it is actually not that hard, it's actually quite simple and it doesn't take very much. Whether it might be asking them directly or finding an example of it [their culture] to use. [NS31]

These two quotes have been the most illuminating for me. They act as a representation of my experiences in this research. I am unsure what contributed to each teacher's different response, but to have Bella and Jane express opposing conclusions is significant. This would be an area for further research.

3.1.5 Effective teaching strategies and approaches

Examining what teachers know about the effective strategies and approaches for teaching CLD learners, and which they choose to use in their own teaching is a key focus of this research. I used my understandings of the effective principles noted in Chapter 1 as a starting point at the initial interview (Alton-Lee, 2003; Brophy, 2000; Franken & McComish 2003b; Walqui, 2002). I questioned the teachers on their espoused pedagogy; what they knew or believed to be useful teaching strategies or approaches for CLD students. Over the research period, gains in teachers' knowledge were apparent through their *stated knowledge* and their *use* of appropriate approaches and strategies. This evidence of teacher learning showed in the semi-structured interview, the response to the hypothetical classroom vignette, and through informal field notes recorded in my personal journal. So which specific strategies and approaches for CLD learners did teachers' *know* about and which did they choose to *use* in their teaching?

-What do teachers report as effective practice?

In the first interview, when I asked Jane to state her beliefs about effective teaching pedagogy for CLD learners, she referred to differences between the 'ideal' and the 'actual', suggesting she had to make compromises between what she would like to provide for CLD learners and what was possible given constraints. Her approach was:

Jane: There should be more than one adult in the room such as a parent or teacher aide. There needs to be a *differentiated* programme for individual needs. I expect the children to have different activities at their level. [NS12]

In probing Jane's response, it was clear she believed that another adult was the answer, supporting her by taking her CLD learners separately. She reiterated that the best teaching strategy was to have a planned, *separate* programme targeted to the students' appropriate fluency levels. She suggested worksheets or a programme from the internet as useful resources for this. She planned for her CLD learners and her 'low literacy' learners together, and taught them together. At this stage Jane had not considered that the variables contributing to the reasons for low literacy for students learning English as a first (only) language were completely different from that of her CLD learners. She just thought she needed to provide texts of 'lower' difficulty for these students than for the remainder of her class. I found these suggestions problematic as Jane's teaching decisions were based on 'exclusion' of students and match the warnings in Chapter 1 (Clay, 1998; Cummins cited in Gibbons, 2002; McNaughton, 2002). There seems to be a gap between Jane's rhetoric, that is, that there needs to be a *differentiated* programme, and the practice of actually delivering such a programme. Understanding that differentiation requires students to be provided with support to meet cognitively demanding and appropriate outcomes, the same as for the other learners in the class, seems to be missing. It may be that Jane did not understand differentiation in way that I had assumed.

By the mid-point interview, five weeks after being in her room, Jane was beginning to question her way of supporting her CLD learners, although she had not made any substantive changes at this point.

Jane: Well um I think in literacy I'm doing separate planning at the moment. So I do things like give them more simple and unrelated task sheets which isn't in line with those [effective principles] outlined. So I'm trying to see how to bring that together, the idea of including them all and checking that they understand. [NS22]

At this stage Jane shows some changes in her espoused beliefs. Perhaps this is a pre-requisite to adapting her actual teaching practice (Ministry of Education 2008; Timperley et al. 2007). At the end of the term, in the final interview, I again asked Jane to state her beliefs:

Gaylene: So if you had to sit down now and write your own beliefs about effective teaching of CLD students. What would you write?

Jane: Know their background. (pause) and ... be clear through assessment how much English they do know.. and (um) finding out from them their supports in the classroom, whether it's friends or 1-on-1 time with the teacher, or something like that.

Gaylene: What about the way that you would teach?

Jane: have visuals with my teaching. And lots of repetition of key language and lots of opportunities to use that language. Lots of prompts, aids, things they can glance over and look at. *I would teach them with the rest of my class.* [NS32]

Here Jane is articulating a new pedagogy, a clear understanding of some strategies needed to cater for a widely defined group of CLD learners in a more effective way. This reflects a major shift from a pedagogy of separation to inclusion.

Through the analysis of the classroom vignettes over the research period, an increase in teacher knowledge of effective CLD teaching strategies were also noted. In her first response, the quantity and quality of Bella's response was minimal. By the second vignette, Bella's responses were more comprehensive. There was a development in the effective strategies noted and significant additions to the reported teaching decisions. In the final interview Bella supported the key ideas she had written in the hypothetical classroom vignette, stating, "the best practice is one that's rich in language and experiences". [SSV2] Bella referred to the CLD students achieving well in small groups when work is scaffolded for them. She reported specific strategies such as using the expertise and knowledge of peers, teaching note-taking skills and using jigsaw tasks. These strategies had all featured during the professional learning sequence and had also been practiced by Bella in her teaching.

Another key theory, linked to effective pedagogy, is that teachers understand the difference between social English and academic English (Cummins, 1981). In the mid-point interview, following the modelling of vocabulary and other explicit language features in the first half of the term, Bella commented about the language we were teaching together.

Bella: it's quite formal language too. It's not everyday, it's the formal. What's the word I'm looking for? [Academic] Academic [laughing] that's it. It is the formal, academic language. [SS22]

This reflects the growing understanding about the type of language, the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) that was made a key focus of teaching.

By the end of the professional development and learning Bella and Jane were able to 'talk the talk.' They could articulate specific strategies and approaches that were effective for improving the academic English language of their CLD learners. They referred to the ability of students to participate along with their peers and to learn alongside them. Knowledge of the learner and knowledge of language acquisition now guided these teachers' reported practice. Collaborative strategies, with an explicit focus on language, became common practice for these teachers.

Jane: with appropriate teaching strategies they (CLD learners) can contribute in the same way as everybody else. I think now it's um more about the whole class, and about teaching language. [NS22]

This comment reinforces Jane's new belief that CLD students should be taught as part of the whole class.

-What do teachers use in their practice?

As noted in Chapter 1, a critical element of effective professional learning is that teachers can not only articulate what is effective practice, but that they are able to transfer this knowledge into action (Timperley et al, 2007). Teachers demonstrated their use of specific ESOL pedagogy in two ways, in-class observations and co-construction of planning.

At the start of the research, very few effective ESOL strategies and approaches were part of teachers' current, everyday practice. Think/pair/share, using learning intentions for some teaching contexts and graphic organisers were reported and observed activities in both classrooms. The initial interview data also revealed some teacher knowledge about jigsaw tasks, vocabulary lists or glossaries, loopy, sentence starters and writing frames. Despite knowing about these strategies, neither Bella nor Jane had *used* them. Other strategies and approaches which were unknown to both teachers were the vocabulary circle, dictogloss and the 3-2-1 oral language activity.

An increase in the use of some specific strategies and approaches by teachers was immediate. One example is the **use of visuals** to support key ideas. In a personal journal entry I noted:

Bella has now constructed a timeline, and has supplied different pictorial examples to show comparisons of schools to be placed along the timeline. Doing this she has created a situation of context-embedded teaching. I named this principle and discussed it with her. [PJ23.8]

Some other strategies tried out by the teachers were linked to **vocabulary learning**. Both teachers stated they understood the importance of including vocabulary building activities in their units of work, but did not practice any specific strategies in an active manner. Neither teacher had constructed a list of key vocabulary or language structures to be featured in the unit, so I took the responsibility for doing this. I then modelled a variety of vocabulary teaching strategies that can be used with key vocabulary. The activities included: loopy (matching words and definitions in a chain around the room), subject-specific glossaries, a vocabulary circle and matching word/definition tasks. Both teachers commented on the value and enjoyment for students of targeted, academic vocabulary learning. The vocabulary tasks were constructed to ensure that all students could contribute. Jane commented in her second interview:

Jane: it is one of the few times (student M) and (student A) has spoken aloud in front of the class. [NS21]

Once again, successful student learning was a motivator for the teacher. That Jane felt the vocabulary activities had real value was borne out when she imitated a similar vocabulary list and a similar range of vocabulary tasks in her A4Art unit. We both observed that many of the quieter CLD students contributed in front of the class through these vocabulary activities. We also discussed the layout and use of vocabulary notebooks to support the classroom programme and how the ESOL teacher or teacher-aide can also support it. It was not until I worked with Jane co-constructing a second unit plan that I became aware that creating an appropriate vocabulary list was not the easy task I had assumed.

I was surprised to learn that neither teacher had ever used a **jigsaw task** with students in their classroom. They knew what a jigsaw task was as they had had the strategy

used with them as adult learners, but neither had tried out the process with a group of students. Bella's reason for not using the jigsaw strategy was related to the group dynamics of the students in her room, resulting in little group work. Bella did eventually try using a jigsaw strategy and reported positively about the impact of the process. She commented:

Bella: I do think they have been able to do more than what they would have teaching it in another way. [SS32]

Originally, there seemed to be minimal use of collaborative strategies, or co-operative group work such as a jigsaw tasks. Students often completed independent tasks at their desks. Given the clear value of using collaborative techniques (Alton-Lee 2003) this finding was a concern.

The area where I observed the greatest gains in teacher practice during the research period was in the teachers' use of **explicit language frames**. This manifested in a variety of forms such as speaking frames, writing frames and sentence starters as well as in informal teaching contexts. Essentially, the explicit language frame provides a scaffold for a learner to shape a *response* to a teacher question. After watching a lesson I had modelled, Bella reflected on students' oral fluency during the session:

Bella: scaffolding helps so children are understanding the vocab. And rephrasing the question, having the first part of the question so everything they have to do frames it and they can understand what is being said. [PJ29.8]

On my last session with Jane's class she asked the students to tell me some of the things they had learned while I had been teaching in their classroom. I noted in my journal the naturalness with which Jane provided the sentence starter scaffold to aid their oral responses. She would not have thought to do this at the start of our work together. She had learned how to naturally and effectively extend student responses. Not only could Jane articulate the need for teachers to provide specific language scaffolding, listing examples of this, she was able to demonstrate her understanding of the process over and over again in her classroom practice.

Mostly the professional learning was co-constructed so that the two teachers observed, heard and read about very similar strategies and approaches. Through the

professional learning process both teachers demonstrated clear changes in thinking, as and in the use of effective ESOL approaches and strategies. Perhaps these teachers had come to see their new way of teaching as a new ‘normal’.

3.2 The Value of Professional Development and Learning - *What do teachers value being exposed to in professional development and learning, with respect to culturally and linguistically diverse learners?*

In this research I was interested in which professional learning experiences impacted on the teachers’ pedagogy and practice. The professional learning and development programme included a range of opportunities for teachers: in-class modelling of teaching strategies, feedback on their teaching, shared planning of lessons, co-construction of model texts, shared teaching, professional readings and the examination of student data. Understanding effective professional learning and development is valuable for the on-going work of advisers and facilitators. I asked Bella and Jane for feedback on the value and effectiveness of the professional learning process and also monitored their uptake of ideas.

Because the professional learning and development was complex, in that the processes were layered, rather than introduced in a neat and sequential order, it is much more difficult to extract the critical and important elements of it. It is not impossible however, and in this section I will discuss the aspects of the professional learning processes that were involved, and highlight those that the teachers reported they particularly valued. In Jane’s case, elements from the professional learning process were also visible in her planning. So which professional learning experiences do teachers report as effective in enhancing their knowledge and practice of teaching CLD students?

3.2.1 Scaffolding teachers: The role of modelling in classrooms

Some elements of teaching can be considered ‘high risk’, such as having another professional in the classroom to teach and to observe. However, both teachers referred

to the in-class modelling process as a welcome opportunity to see specific strategies and approaches *in action*. They believed that this was preferable to just reading some notes or hearing someone talk about effective practice. Bella stated:

Bella: I would have to say this is the best way to do it, cos if you give me those notes on the jigsaw I don't think I would have tried it. I wouldn't have seen it in practice [SS33]

Of interest to professional development providers is Jane's sense of frustration of theory provided without practice. Jane stated:

Jane: But just actually *seeing* it! For example, (umm) inquiry learning, I've had so much information, input, resources and things which are fabulous I'm sure, but I haven't actually ever seen it. And to me that is what I need.

Gaylene: you need to see the transfer to the practice

Jane: Yeah Yeah [NS23]

While both teachers noted their appreciation of seeing effective teaching practice in action, they also added an interesting proviso. They felt that it was important that the modelling occurred in their *own class of students*. Bella commented:

Gaylene: So do you think the key to effective PD is actually seeing something in practice?

Bella: Yes, with your class too because you can see the things that work, the things that didn't work, and which children were able to do it ... I think the two need to go together cos even if you went to a course and saw it being modelled I don't think ... I don't think it would be as effective as having you in my own classroom. [SS33]

Bella mentioned having another adult and another 'pair of hands' as a positive spin-off from the professional learning. Jane referred to her questions being answered as an important element, stating "I like to see it being done and I like to ask questions to clarify something for me". [NS23] It was unclear whether this was someone to 'help out', or whether it was because there was another adult *to talk to*. This perhaps reflects the notion of co-construction (referred to in Chapter 2) where knowledge is constructed in interaction with others. Talking enabled learning.

In-class modelling was not always just the role of one teacher. In one teaching example I recorded in my personal journal:

Bella was explaining to the class what she was expecting from them...a sentence showing comparisons between schooling in the past and now. In the middle of the lesson I intervened to explain the value of using a sentence scaffold. I wrote an example on the board and explained how that would help students to see what she was asking them to do. On my next visit I noticed Bella had used a sentence scaffold for the students to record their comparisons and it was now glued into their topic books. This did help her CLD students have success and an accurate written sentence was the outcome and I believe my interruption during the lesson was justified. [PJ23.8]

It seems that interrupting or discussing ideas with Bella during this lesson, that is having a shared or co-constructed teaching role, had a positive impact. It had not initially been my intention to teach together, but this occurred naturally on some occasions. It seems that while modelling appropriate teaching strategies was valuable, greater interest and uptake came from both teachers when it was linked to a shared teaching context or when there was an onus on them to implement the teaching as well. In the mid-point interview Jane reported that she valued trying out ideas for herself, but with my support.

Jane: ..and then implementing it, so what we're about to do... which is .. I have a unit, and I am going to do it, so that it's important for me to do it, and to have your support. So you are letting go of that and I am taking that responsibility. [NS23]

Overall, there were some specific gains from the modelling experience. In her teaching, Bella imitated the use of visuals, the sentence starters and the jigsaw task. In her teaching, Jane imitated using the modelling book, the vocabulary circle, graphic organisers, speaking and writing frames and learning intentions. Jane's appreciation of the new learning was highlighted when I received an email, "Thank you Gaylene, your work is fantastic. I can't wait to get started myself. Jane".

For Bella and Jane the in-class modelling was significant, but of most value when it occurred in their own classroom with their own students. When the teacher is required, in turn, to model a similar strategy or approach, the findings suggest that this is also successful. Another important finding is that it is not just a variety of

unconnected strategies that work. Rather, it is the pulling together all of the complex threads, so that each teacher is able to use the most effective strategy, in the most effective manner, with the student(s) for whom it is most relevant. This reflects a ‘deep’ level of learning (Schön, 1991; Senge, Cambron-McCabe, Lucas, Smith, Dutton & Kleiner, 2000; Timperley, Fung, Wilson & Barrar, 2006). I hoped that it would be easy for teachers to just imitate the strategies in their teaching that I had modelled with their class. Of course, it was not as straightforward as this. A comment from Bella half way through the research period “I have enough to be going on with, to get right, before I need more”, led me to consider the professional learning programme more deeply also. It became clear as we co-constructed the teaching process that the *pace of learning* needed to meet Bella and Jane’s own needs, rather than to suit my expectations.

3.2.2 Scaffolding teachers: The role of observation and feedback

I was aware from my previous experiences as an adviser that I would need to have a framework for the observation of the in-class modelling. I believed that to ensure the success of this element of the professional learning, a purpose for the teachers’ observations of my lesson would need to be established. I was not there to teach the class for them, but only as a means to enable changes in their own teaching practice. Bella reflected my own viewpoint that modelling and observing was not of itself a success. There needed to be some reason or purpose ‘driving’ it.

Bella: It’s best to go into somebody’s classroom and look at something that specifically happens. Something specifically in your mind you might want. Maybe that’s the crux of it.

Gaylene: Knowing what you want?

Bella: Yes because if we don’t know what we want from it [observing teaching]...what are we getting from it? [SS33]

Both teachers explained that they valued having the chance to *do something specific* while I was teaching their class.

Bella: Yeah, I liked those observation sheets because it made me think about what you were doing rather than sitting there being an observer I was actually an observer with a focus. [SS25]

Gaylene: Did being asked to take observation notes help make any difference?

Jane: Yes it did, because I'm looking for something and I find it useful because the focus is there to look for something particular. And I liked recording the vocabulary as well. [NS22]

It seemed that the teachers needed to have a focus to engage their attention, as generalised 'watching' was not enough. It took most of the ten-week research period to create a particular observation framework that seemed to meet the need to provide a specific observation focus. The ToF: LAC observation framework has now become an outcome of my research and was described in chapter 2. Ensuring that teachers are actively observing reflects the nature of participatory research. Not only was I reflecting on the teaching and the professional learning process, but the teachers needed to be engaged in reflection as part of their effective professional learning (Davis, 2004; Schön, 1991).

3.2.3 Scaffolding teachers: The role of shared planning, including co-construction of model texts

The importance of writing a model text and co-construction of planning emerged as a key element of the professional learning process. After about 4 weeks at each school I decided to have a half-day planning meeting with each teacher. The purpose of this meeting was: to clarify the next stage of teaching, check the intended student learning outcomes, and get feedback on the professional learning process so far.

As noted earlier, Jane and Bella did not have an explicit picture in their mind of what the learning or student outcomes would look like by the end of the term's work. This became clear during the planning meeting. As part of the discussion to clarify learning and teaching goals, Jane and I jointly constructed a 'model text' that would 'show' students what was expected in their written descriptions. This one task became very significant to Jane's learning as it clarified the goals of her teaching, and the language features she needed to teach explicitly. I recorded in my personal journal:

The planning day with Jane turned out to be significant. I had assumed Jane could write a model text, but this became a critical task for us. It helped Jane establish the clear outcomes for her unit of work, a description of an artist's work, and therefore the sort of language that would need to be taught. She said that she 'had not done this before. I would normally look on the internet to search for something that I felt would fit. *'I did not really think I could do this myself'*. She commented that it had taken a similar amount of time to do as searching for a resource. [NSPJ16.8]

The results of the time spent constructing the model text were obvious in the teaching that followed. Again in my journal I commented:

The planning time was well spent was obvious by Jane's superb lesson on Monday. She used the data projector to good effect to show a range of cultural artefacts. She also used a very explicit focus on language features. I did note that Jane was less confident with the lesson using the description model text than I had previously seen her in the classroom. [NSPJ3.9]

The shared planning process and the observation of Jane's teaching revealed to me that some aspects were more difficult than I had assumed. For example, both Jane and Bella found it difficult to identify the language learning outcomes, the key vocabulary, and the phrases that would be used by students while participating in planned tasks. Teaching the relevant language features explicitly had also been difficult. I was reminded of the need to keep an open and flexible mind as I had to make 'on the spot decisions' about the most productive use of the planning time with each teacher and what to suggest for the next steps in their learning.

3.2.4 Scaffolding teachers: The role of 'the outside expert'

I used some of the principles of effective teaching outlined in Chapter one, in my own planning and in-class modelling to Jane and Bella. The strategies and approaches I selected are commonly understood as effective within the ESOL teaching community, but were not necessarily familiar to classroom teachers. They are listed in Chapter 2, under phase 3 of the research design. The selection of appropriate strategies and approaches was one area where my role as an ESOL specialist was important, and I

felt confident delivering. In this, I was fulfilling the role of ‘provider pedagogical knowledge’ (Henry, 2007) or the ‘outside expert’ (Timperley et al., 2007).

There were two key ways that teachers had access to pedagogical content knowledge in the professional development; through the professional readings provided or through the information that I shared. I had expected the professional readings to be an important source of information for Jane and Bella, but found that mostly their learning seemed to come more directly from my conversations with them.

I was initially surprised and a little disconcerted about the amount of talking I did in the semi-structured interviews and during other work with Bella and Jane. It seemed to be the antithesis of good research. But on closer examination, in many cases my talking was to answer teacher questions and to discuss points of pedagogy. When the role of ‘outside expert’ is considered as an important feature of professional development, it is less of a surprise. In some cases I was involved in sharing practical teaching ideas for tasks as suggestions for Bella and Jane to try later. The examples below show two examples of my input; during an interview with Jane and in my personal journal after a conversation with Bella.

Gaylene: You can try and get the children to construct a text with you in the same way you did for the art description. They can then do it in pairs or alone. You could even use that as a dictogloss text and they could learn about explanations that way. [NS33]

Bella has made a booklet for each student with a range of graphic organisers and a structure to follow for their individual inquiry. It includes a venn diagram, a timeline, a brainstorming and planning page. I supply an information report model and a checklist. [PJ3.9]

Other information was of a more explicit nature, giving examples of explicit language-focussed feedback for teachers to use with students.

Gaylene to Jane: (discussing giving feedback to the CLD learners) This is about the next step.. Feedback could include; I can see you’ve got some technical language, I can see you have got the linking words...your next step is... Teachers need to model this. [NS23]

During this discussion I noted that Jane is writing down some of my specific suggestions, to use with the students to help her with the process later. This example illustrates her ‘action’ from my suggestions, a point that will be taken up again in section 3.3 below.

As an expert I also had influence on the teachers in less direct ways. Sometimes I was not aware of doing this. For example in Bella’s class when I was having some difficulty with students’ willingness to work together in a collaborative task, I did not realise the impact of a casual remark I made. Later in an interview when discussing the challenges of group work with her class, Bella reminded me.

Gaylene: I was trying to get them to talk and understand and share...

Bella: ... and you said, I’m not going to give up on group work. (laughs)

[SS32]

Showing some passion and commitment to the process on my part had been noted.

The importance of the outside expert seemed to be important to teachers. The teachers liked to know they were gaining authentic and valuable information and said that advice on *transfer* to a classroom setting should be a part of adviser expertise.

Jane: the thing I don’t like is when on PD groups of teachers have to teach others without really knowing the content. I think you need the input of an expert. Sometimes the PD has not covered the implementation of the ideas into the classroom. [NS33]

Here Jane reflects scepticism about the professional learning process when expected expert knowledge is not provided, nor when application to classroom practice is not covered.

During the research period I tried to use some professional reading to support teachers. This included information about particular teaching strategies from a range of sources, as well as providing a recommended text for primary teachers, Pauline Gibbons (2002) *Scaffolding Language Scaffolding Learning Teaching Second Language Learners in the Mainstream Classroom*. The response to being asked to complete readings was variable and valued for future reference rather than current learning.

Gaylene: So you are saying, really, that the reading is no good on its own.

Bella: No definitely not, and it was the first couple of pages, that was more about the pedagogy that I actually liked. And when it went into the class teaching ideas I sort of... I started glossing over it. [SS32]

Jane: I will definitely go back to the book. And this will serve to remind me of some of the ideas I have used. [NS32]

In the key ideas about professional learning outlined in Chapter 1, it was suggested that, in order to be effective, external agents must take teachers beyond their current understandings (Timperley & Robinson, 2002). Creating a shared learning environment with an open exchange of theory and practice seems to have facilitated the process of increasing Bella and Jane's pedagogical content knowledge.

3.2.5 Opportunities for specific professional development in effective strategies and approaches for CLD learners. Where to next?

As noted previously, Bella and Jane had little prior professional development that might have shaped their pedagogical content knowledge for effective teaching of CLD learners. In the final interview, when reflecting on the professional learning and development programme I asked Jane how the work had differed from her original expectations. Jane thought I would be showing her how to work more effectively with the separate, small group of four students she had identified as in need of English language support. She expressed surprise when this was not exactly the situation and that my research focus encompassed so many children in her classroom.

Gaylene: Could you explain what you expected from the PD?

Jane: I expected to (pause) have lots of time with the ESOL kids and focussing on them. I thought it would be about a group of children and it has been about them, in a round about way, but in a way it has been more global. I am looking more to the children on the fringes than before. I feel I have gained a *wider concept* of ESOL. [NS33]

In the final interview, Bella and Jane reflected on the lack of opportunity for specific professional development around the practice of teaching diverse students. Both

teachers noted the lack of interest at their respective schools, suggesting it was partly because of the competition between many possible professional development foci. They were also critical of some aspects of other previous professional learning opportunities. Jane commented on the content of some of the professional learning she had attended in the past.

Jane: It is important for PD to meet the needs of teachers who have many different groups of children, as they are part of the group that we have. In terms of PD it can be very disappointing if it is pitched at white, middle-class children. I have felt that in the past sometimes that the PD is not really targeted to some of the children I have in my class. [NS33]

This suggests that discussions about meeting the particular needs of CLD students had been missing from school level professional development, but also from other opportunities for professional learning.

By the end of the research period, both teachers were of the opinion that professional learning about effective practice for diverse learners was important for them and their colleagues. In the final interview, Bella suggested it was a critical part of improving teacher's practice with CLD learners.

Gaylene: How could it work better? [the support of CLD learners]

Bella: well... PD for a start (emphatic)

Gaylene: For everybody?

Bella: Yes. Now that I've thought about that question, now I am horrified and I haven't been before now, I haven't even thought about the ESOL children in my class, other than ... they're here.

Gaylene: How can we get the message to the rest of the staff?

Bella: Unless there's an awareness that there is a need, and personally and speaking for other teachers I don't think teachers see that there is a need because the kids come in with no English and they get to that point where you think they've done well cos they're socially OK. And teachers think that's fine, but our job is not finished there. You need to make the PD mandatory.

And get principals on board! [SS33]

Bella was emphatic that the professional development had raised her awareness of her CLD learners. She went on to successfully apply for a Ministry of Education scholarship for further TESOL training. Jane has continued to be interested in best

practice for CLD learners and is now considered a role model in her school, being asked to share some knowledge with other teachers.

3.3 Learning from the experience - *How do teachers interpret professional learning into practice and how is my practice shaped by teacher responses?*

3.3.1 Learning from the experience: How teachers interpret the professional learning

It is not important to have volunteered for professional learning, but a teacher needs to *engage* in the process (Timperley et al., 2007). Bella and Jane both expressed a need and an interest to learn more about supporting CLD learners in their classroom. They both engaged with having another teacher/researcher in the room, and wanted to learn from the process.

Gaylene: Did you mind having your teaching being observed?

Jane: No really enjoy having other people in my room. I find it helpful.[NS35]

A key focus of the study was to examine the way the professional learning opportunities were ‘interpreted’ and ‘taken up’ by teachers in order to become part of their repertoire of practice. When involved in a professional learning process, facilitators and advisers require teachers to change or adapt aspects of their teaching in order to be more effective. Creating the contexts to scaffold teachers from known learning to new learning is important, but would be of little value if teachers did not internalise or act on new learning in some way.

Both teachers chose to take up or act on my suggestions in some form. I gathered much evidence of teachers’ willingness to try out new tasks often recording that teachers had responded to ideas or taken on my suggestions. For example, in my personal journal I noted:

Bella is responding to the ideas. She has a scaffold in place for the inquiry, using the question dice for her reading groups, using the vocabulary circle regularly. [PJSS3.9]

Jane has taken on all of my suggestions, even when ideas were given informally at the end of a lesson. Her responsiveness to feedback seems to be an important theme and I will use it point of conversation in the interview.

[PJ23.8]

The way each teacher chose to show evidence of making the connections to new learning was of interest and the variation between each teacher was significant on this point. Previously I referred to the difference in the uptake of completing the student voice interview.

Typically, Jane asked how else she could improve her lesson at the end of each session. Jane responded to any practical suggestions immediately, often responding or creating resources while we were still talking. For example, when I provided feedback to Jane after her teaching that a ‘summary grid’ would now be a useful graphic organiser to use with students to consolidate what they had learned, she instantly started creating one on her computer. After one lesson, I suggested she use a highlighter to draw students’ attention to the topic sentence of each paragraph in her description text. She did this in her next lesson. She also was a prolific note taker, regularly writing down the key points from our discussion onto her unit plans for later reference. The example below, during a discussion about the word ‘purpose’ illustrates this.

Gaylene: you’ve just hit on what is actually... what’s really critical for ESOL. It’s not the words that are specific to the content areas that are difficult for kids. It is exactly those words like ‘purpose’ that have a wide range of meaning in a wide range of contexts. They are the words which are really tricky.

Jane: Right (taking notes) [NS23]

Jane frequently took notes, annotating (by hand) her unit plan as we were talking. Annotating the text, an effective strategy for CLD learners, works for adults too (Walqui, 2002; 2007). For Jane, immediate responses and actions seemed to help her clarify her thinking.

Jane also made reference back to notes she had taken previously, demonstrating that connections were made and remembered. For example, when we were discussing the

fact that CLD students learn language by being engaged meaningfully in a task, Jane made reference to her previous notes.

Gaylene: So they're learning language through the actual process of doing it the task.

Jane: Which I thought was really valuable... um...I wrote that down here actually as something important you said to the class, 'the more talking you do and agreeing you do the better'. I thought that was interesting because I spend so much time saying stop talking! Do this silently by yourself!

(laughing) [NS22]

It seems that my comment to the students, created some dissonance for Jane, because of its contrast to her usual message to the class (Timperley et al., 2007). Perhaps this highlights the value of creating dissonance as part of the professional learning and development process.

3.3.2 Learning from the experience: The effect of the teachers' responses on adviser practice

Decisions about the professional learning process were based on the knowledge that I had gained about the teacher and the needs of her particular students. I had to choose the most appropriate approach for new learning and demonstrate it in the most appropriate manner. I had to make decisions about scaffolding the content and the process of the learning for each teacher in the same way a teacher does for her students.

An important aspect of my decision-making was based on the responses I got to my suggestions from each teacher. When each teacher engaged with or acted upon a suggestion there was an impact on my decision of what to include next in the professional learning process. In this way I enacted the action research process reflecting and adapting set plans if required. I had to be both flexible and reflexive, considering why some ideas were preferred by one teacher and not by the other. The process was therefore an iterative and reflexive one that developed slightly differently in each classroom context. So what did being engaged in effective professional learning actually look like for me? How did the teachers and students shape my practice as an adviser?

An issue that affected my practice was not knowing the students. The class at South School did not readily warm to the collaborative style of learning that I was modelling. They didn't respect the opinions of their peers and found it difficult to co-construct their learning in small groups. Behaviour management issues therefore influenced a few of the choices I made for this class. It would have been much easier to give the students individual tasks to 'keep a lid' on the class behaviour, but I believed the collaborative work and the scaffolding of learning was slowly building the culture of learning and expectation in a positive way. My personal journal reflects some of the adviser difficulties.

I was shocked by the noise and the ease that children go off task. And their lack of respect for each other. I tried to stay upbeat and model an emphasis on learning and the challenge of the material. [PJ1.8]

I gave students' feedback on their jigsaw task. I did my best to say to the children they had 'wowed' me with their great summaries and that I had been able to put them together to make the report. I was able to show them their learning by reading out the written result to the class. I praised their learning and they seemed happy about their work. [PJ16.8]

As an adviser/teacher I placed an emphasis with the class on their effective learning, but as a researcher I was interested in the impact the class was having on me personally and the professional learning process.

Other influences on adviser practice were that new ideas and new strategies took time to be internalised by teachers and to be taken-up into their teaching repertoire. At the start of the professional learning process I had trawled through many sources to compile a comprehensive list of possible strategies to model to teachers. I was ready to embark on a multitudinous range of ideas, but it was not to be. It became clear that while a comprehensive range of effective strategies was easy for me to explain and model, the teachers sometimes needed a longer period of 'bedding down' in order to use them effectively. In other words, I needed to be responsive to observations and uptake by teachers, and plan 'less' in order to be more effective. This was especially so with Bella when I had to provide time for some new learning and could not move

at the pace I had expected. Bella commented that “I have enough to be going on with, to get right, before I need more”. [SS23]

I hoped that it would be easy for teachers to use the same sort of strategies in their teaching that I had modelled with their class, but it was clear that as teachers co-constructed the process the pace of learning had to meet their own needs.

One real issue surfaced when we began the observation and feedback process. I felt a lack of a suitable data collection tool for the teacher observations really impacted on my effectiveness. I wanted to be able to be specific and to draw teachers’ attention to many facets of their practice.

At first I asked the teachers to annotate my lesson plan while they viewed my teaching and to note the ESOL principle they thought was being exemplified. The teachers were also asked to record the specific vocabulary and language structures that students needed to engage with the content of the lesson. I was aware that it was important to have a purpose for teachers’ observations, although I could not outline exactly what this should be. I could not force teachers to notice what was in my head! The method of writing on the unit plans during the teacher observation was not really giving me the data I was seeking. This was especially so when it came to providing feedback to teachers about their strategies and approaches. I needed to consider what information would be useful to them, and in what format. After the first observation of one teacher I was dissatisfied with my observations and noted:

It seems that I will need to think carefully about a format that will clearly direct my focus to the essential elements of effective teacher pedagogy. I want to be able to note all of the elements of a lesson, or series of lessons, in order to guide teachers’ self-reflections and my classroom observations. I do not think such an observation format exists. [PJ18.7]

One month later, I was no nearer to solving this dilemma and I still did not feel that I had established a way to effectively provide feedback to the teachers. It was not a problem giving oral feedback, but providing evidence for my comments and being able to specifically record teacher actions in the lesson seemed important. In my personal journal I again recorded,

I am frustrated with myself. I am unsure how to construct the observation framework as nothing seems to do exactly what I want. I have returned to taking notes about the whole lesson. [PJ28.8]

Over time, I created the Teachers' Observation Framework: Language and Culture which was an outcome of the research and met a need I encountered by being engaged in it.

Another key finding for my own practice, as I participated and reflected on meeting the needs of the complex, multi-level, multi-fluent groups of diverse learners these teachers taught everyday was how to teach most effectively, to ensure CLD students would learn. I too, needed to moderate the ideals of known pedagogy with the actuality of this student group. I noted in my personal journal:

I am finding the coverage of the whole class' needs difficult. I wish I had more follow up time with the CLD students. There really does still need to be some back-up support behind a teacher to recycle and reinforce again the key ideas covered in the classroom. Even with this style of teaching which is inclusive, collaborative and rich in scaffolding I still feel they need some one-to-one checks on their progress. Who does this? When does it happen? [PJ30.8]

So will it be possible to sustain the changes to teaching practice? I asked Bella and Jane in our final interviews to tell me what it will take to maintain their excellent practice. Jane stated that having *practiced* the changes herself meant they would continue, especially as she could see the *evidence* in her work with her CLD students,

Jane: Because I have used them. I will now, I've used them, I've experienced it, I've actually asked those ESOL students how they have found it. It feels it's worked more collaboratively with the children [NS35]

But it seems that some sort of accountability and follow-up might be also be needed.

Gaylene: What will help you in the future?

Bella: Getting you to check up in a year's time (laughing!!!)

Gaylene: a quick email?

Bella: and a request for planning. (lots of laughing) [SS33]

As noted previously there were challenges as I searched for answers to my research questions. In establishing my position in the two research classrooms I had a range of roles: researcher, teacher, adviser, mentor and friend. I didn't have all of the answers to the challenges of teaching culturally and linguistically diverse learners, just a desire to learn more about the teaching that is most effective for the success of these students, and the processes of professional development that enhances and builds teacher knowledge.

Chapter 4: Discussion of findings and implications for practice

In this research I set out to explore what teachers knew about teaching culturally and linguistically diverse learners, which teaching strategies they chose to use and which professional learning activities they valued for shaping their knowledge.

The findings outlined in Chapter 3 have been drawn using qualitative research methods, in particular Action Research. The information gained has been an insight into the practice of these two classroom teachers and their CLD learners. But the nature of qualitative research is such that findings are tentative and careful. The small number of participants and schools limits any claim to representation of other teachers in our region. As a culmination of this research therefore I am only able to draw some tentative but pertinent conclusions to respond to the research questions. There is no attempt to draw any particular comparison between teachers or settings, though where relevant I will note factors related to a particular teacher or school.

I have utilised a range of data collection methods: participant observation, in-depth interviewing and examination of documents such as evidence of student work and teachers' planning to draw conclusions about each teacher's practice. I also drew on unstructured teacher conversations and my own adviser and researcher reflections recorded as field notes. The hypothetical classroom vignette provided other relevant information. Each of these sources of data has enabled me to construct a picture of the practice of these teachers as they taught their culturally and linguistically diverse students, and to develop a professional learning programme that would most effectively meet their needs.

Action research has enabled me to co-construct the learning as I have engaged as a participant, teacher, researcher, adviser and learner. It was important that I captured the views of the participants as honestly and accurately as possible, through their own eyes (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). But ultimately their stories are told through my particular lens.

4.1 How did teachers make sense of culturally diverse learners and what do they view as effective practice for these learners?

-Knowing the learner: Clarity of identification and definition

To better serve an increasing diverse population, teachers need to select culturally responsive curricula and instructional approaches that better facilitate learning for all students (Bishop & Berryman, 2006; Ladson-Billings, 1995). Of course, this is a large undertaking given the extent of student diversity in any given classroom. The extent to which the teachers acknowledge and build on the diversity of their community and fulfil these ideals are embedded in this research investigation. It has been a deliberate focus of the professional development intervention. If teachers are to undertake teaching practices that acknowledge all learners' backgrounds and cater for their needs effectively they must be well informed about the student diversity in their classroom.

The evidence shows that the two teachers involved in the study originally did not 'know their learners'. This was manifest through the narrow definition of a CLD learner, the lack of full information about students' languages and backgrounds, the misunderstanding of cohort achievement and the low expectations of student engagement in curriculum-based tasks. As the identification of students who used a language other than English outside the school setting grew, and teachers were engaged in understanding the pedagogy around language acquisition, their definition of CLD learners expanded and they became more focussed on a wider group of students. CLD students who had 'just below average' or 'average' achievement were looked at with new eyes as teachers realised these learners still had specific *academic* English learning needs that could be addressed in their teaching programme. But their understanding was still linked to notions of fluency in English, and could be more closely connected to learners' cultural identities.

An important implication seems to be for teachers, schools and facilitators of professional learning is that it is important to advocate and use the widest understanding and definition of a culturally and linguistically diverse learner. Theoretical knowledge confirms the importance of knowing about CALP (Cummins,

1984), that is a focus on **academic** English and additive bilingualism for the student and family. But this must be linked to cultural connections of the learner and family. The culture of the child cannot enter the classroom until it has entered the consciousness of the teacher (source unknown).

Ultimately, the critical relationship is the one that every single child has with his or her classroom teacher. Being a culturally responsive teacher seems to require a specific focus and it did not come easy to either teacher, as noted previously. In this study each teacher came to a contrasting opinion about her ability to integrate students' cultures and languages into their classroom.

-Knowing the learner: Clarity about student outcomes

Teachers are required to interpret a variety of data in order to identify where student progress reflects 'typical' patterns and where assistance is warranted. Failure to use available data may limit students' potential for learning and reduce teacher effectiveness. This is especially important for CLD students who may be new to the language of instruction. The findings reflect that both teachers could have examined and analysed normed assessment data and class-based formative assessment more effectively. There was also a need for clarity of understanding of national cohort and the lever for accessing extra Ministry of Education funding.

A focus on student learning outcomes was an aspect of the professional development intervention that helped both teachers identify clearly the purpose of their teaching. As clarity about the expected outcomes developed, especially in the writing process, so too did teachers' ability to scaffold teaching and to effectively identify the steps or components that needed to be taught to achieve the outcomes. In Jane's case it led to improved personal understanding of explicit language features. Co-constructing a model text exemplar was also valuable for building teacher knowledge. As CLD learner success became evident, so too did teachers' expectations and motivations. Attention to data and student learning outcomes turned out to be a significant factor in the professional learning process (Guskey, 2000; Timperley & Parr, 2004).

-Knowing the learner: Using effective teaching strategies for CLD learners

The specific teaching strategies and approaches that teachers reported as being effective expanded over the research period. As the wider group of CLD students were considered, a *greater range* of strategies had to be employed. It was no longer possible to separate and isolate CLD students by providing them an alternative, (less challenging) teaching programme. Teachers needed to scaffold teaching and differentiate or modify teaching tasks and/or texts to meet the needs of many students in the class. There are many lists of effective teaching strategies and approaches available to teachers (Brewster & Ellis, 2001; Gibbons, 2002). But these had to be known by the teachers first! There is a clear body of knowledge around this subject, but getting it to the hands of teachers and facilitators of professional development seems to be a barrier. Information supporting effective strategies needed to be provided and modelled to turn teacher knowledge into teacher practice. Effective strategies can become part of the automated practice of excellent teachers of Māori students (Bishop & Berryman, 2006). I believe effective strategies need to become part of the automated practice of excellent teachers of culturally and linguistically diverse learners. This will benefit all learners, but especially CLD learners

-Knowing the learner: The use of cultural knowledge and language as a resource

I believe schools need to be advocates of culture and languages maintenance. The use of home languages as a resource, in both visual and spoken forms, could be given greater emphasis in both classrooms. This would be one way of increasing the cultural and language awareness of all students. It would also allow students the chance to make connections between what they know and what is new to them. In other words, languages are a strength from which greater learning can be accessed. It is also another way for teachers to demonstrate culturally responsive teaching. At first, I saw few explicit examples in the class settings of identifying, acknowledging and incorporating students' cultural and language strengths and resources, that is, their 'gifts' (Houk, 2005). Viewing the strengths of the student as 'gifts' for learning is important because it focuses teachers' expectations on the whole learner, and draws connections to students' language resources as a valued basis for learning.

I was able to begin to shape the teachers' awareness and improve the way in which they brought student languages and cultural experiences into the taught curriculum.

But active support is required to provide the classroom tools for teachers to ensure the use of many languages occurs. It required raised awareness and a change in attitude and needs to happen at a school-wide level to provide the school context for teachers to make changes at a classroom level.

-Knowing the learner: Curriculum integration

There is a need to consider curriculum development from a range of lenses, and most obviously to be based on the needs of students. Teachers are not the font of all knowledge. CLD learners' knowledge needed to be brought into the legitimate and valued classroom curriculum.

It was a concern that the class unit plans incorporated little knowledge that was different to the prevailing white, middle-class 'eurocentric' view held by teachers (Apple, 1996; Derman-Sparks, 1997). Other world-views and knowledge was drawn to teachers' attention and woven into the topics through the professional learning process. I believe the findings show that both teachers became more culturally responsive in their teaching as a direct result of this.

Jane suggested it was difficult for teachers to keep their students' needs central, as they 'take on board' much new information and ideas. She suggested that this reflects the fast pace of change over the past fifteen years, implementing the curriculum and keeping up with other advances or technologies. Perhaps the pace of change leads teachers to resort to a default position, where they teach what they know and from their own perspective. Jane's comments may also reflect her uncertainty about the ever-changing nature of the student population.

It was of interest that Bella suggested that 'others' would be able to better support students' cultural knowledge. Perhaps she was overwhelmed by the seeming responsibility of this, or avoiding personal responsibility. Perhaps, as in the UK research (Parker-Jenkins et al, 2004) she lacked information and confidence. Bella suggests that some teachers don't even think about the cultural knowledge and perspectives of their students and by implication are not likely to make students' lives a central part of the teaching process. If the issue is linked to teacher interest and motivation, then Bella's suggestion that we enforce a focus on other cultures through

the opportunities provided in *The New Zealand Curriculum* may be necessary. However, this seems unlikely when the professional development that is valued at a school-wide level is not reflective of this. The focus of teachers' professional learning is usually closely aligned to what has been identified of value by the school.

The comments from the two teachers in some ways imply a 'survival' mode. Is it the level of confidence of teachers or the focus on too many other aspects of their work that is not freeing up the opportunity and time for them to really consider the issue of student diversity? Perhaps issues such as 'time' and 'difficulty' are used the mask the teachers' fears? These are questions worthy of future investigation.

What are the implications for schools selecting appropriate teaching contexts and curricula? We need to look for inspiration and direction for example in the work of Banks (2007) and Gay (2000). Their frameworks have been merged below to synthesise the most appropriate aspects of each writer used to guide the two teachers in the study. These may be helpful to others. Teachers need to ensure:

- *An equity pedagogy* – a focus on closing *achievement* gaps in diverse groups and *modify their teaching* in some way (Banks, 2007). This means: using a wide variety of instructional strategies (Gay, 2000).
- *Content integration* – the use of examples and content from a variety of cultures and groups (Banks, 2007). This means: building bridges of meaningfulness between home and school experiences as well as between academic abstractions and lived socio-cultural realities; and incorporating multicultural information, resources, and materials in all subjects (Gay, 2000).
- *Knowledge construction* –helping students to investigate the frames of reference and cultural assumptions that are embedded in the school curriculum (Banks, 2007). This means: acknowledging the legitimacy of the cultural heritages of different ethnic groups; teaching students to know and praise their own and each others' heritages (Gay, 2000).

Culturally responsive teaching is the ability to look outside one's own cultural standpoint. If teachers are unable to do this, classrooms will continue to predominantly reflect the teachers' culture and knowledge (May, 1994). As the diverse range of cultures and communities vary in the school community, so too

teachers' knowledge will need to be updated and flexible. While my work as an adviser has left questions about teachers' abilities to link their teaching to learners' prior knowledge and experiences, this research has reinforced the absolute need to do so. In the research, it was possible to do this by using the 'expertise' of the students as holders of valued curriculum knowledge. It turned out to be a relatively easy process, requiring me to explicitly model making explicit links between students' knowledge and the identified curriculum outcomes. Finding time to talk to students is one theme that teachers also identified as a critical factor. But eventually, the teachers came to different conclusions about their ability to be a culturally responsive teacher. For Jane it was easy (see her quote [NS31] on p.79) and for Bella it was hard (see her quote [SS31] on p 78). It is another interesting research question to ponder why the two teachers reached such different conclusions and which teacher is more likely to sustain the effective practice in the long-term?

4.2 What did teachers value being exposed to in professional development and learning, with respect to culturally and linguistically diverse learners?

Timperley et al. (2007) inform us that effective professional learning provides multiple, aligned opportunities for teachers to learn. This was certainly true for the professional learning programme of Jane and Bella who valued a range of learning opportunities. It was not pre-determined or sequential, but layered and scaffolded to their individual needs. Yet there were still some essential features. Quality professional learning comes from opportunities for teachers to engage at a deep level with a range of ideas and approaches. It also required some 'frontloading' of information and relevant pedagogy from me (Timperley et al., 2007).

For the two teachers in-class modelling was significant, but they felt it was critical that it occurred in their own classroom with their own students. This supports the notion of how 'situated learning', the interactions of people in one's environment, as major determinants of what is learned and how learning takes place (Ministry of Education, 2008). It seems that being in the teachers' own classroom, with their own students, proved to be a critical element. Of importance was also that the in-class

modelling went hand-in-hand with an expectation that the teachers, in turn, would model a similar strategy or approach. Thus, a level of teacher accountability and action was built into the modelling process.

Shared planning and time to construct a model text was associated with gains in teacher knowledge. For example, co-constructing a model text enabled both teachers to identify explicit vocabulary and sentence structures required by students to achieve the learning outcomes. As a direct result of the planning and text construction both teachers were more able to establish relevant learning intentions and success criteria. After this activity in the professional learning programme, a greater level of specific teacher knowledge and clarity was also demonstrated, especially in Jane's teaching.

Whatever the features of the professional learning programme, it must be developed at an appropriate pace, so that teachers are able to learn effectively and embed the new actions. It is not just a matter of choosing a variety of strategies, but pulling together of a range of complex threads, so that each teacher is able to use the most effective strategy, in the most effective manner, with the student(s) for whom it is most relevant. In other words the professional learning of teachers needed to be scaffolded appropriately to their exact level of expertise and need. The role of pedagogical content knowledge was critical to this process (Alton-Lee, 2003; Hattie, 2003; Timperley et al., 2007).

4.3 How did teachers interpret professional learning into practice and how was my practice shaped by teacher responses?

It is not enough for teachers to say their professional learning was effective, they need to demonstrate transfer of their learning into the classroom (Joyce & Showers, 1995; Robertson, 2005). New information impacted on the teachers' abilities to show confidence in their craft, and sometimes they had to teach outside their own personal scope of knowledge. The teachers had to 'do something' with their new learning; engage and adapt in some form or ignore. Tied to the effectiveness of the professional learning is teacher beliefs. For example, if teachers state that their expectations of CLD students is for them to do 'less' than other students and complete tasks which

require ‘few language skills’, it is very likely that CLD learners will make little progress. It also serves to keep students on less demanding tasks, rather than the ‘tasks with scope’ that are critical to student engagement and learning (Clay, 1998; McNaughton, 2002). For example, if teachers do not feel confident in their knowledge of student backgrounds and experiences they will not spend time linking their teaching to this. For example, if teachers do not know about specific effective teaching strategies they cannot use them. Many aspects of the professional learning were outside the currently held knowledge and beliefs of the teachers. The professional learning process was a direct, but perhaps unanticipated, challenge to teachers’ current beliefs. Success in creating some challenge and dissonance was linked to the teachers’ positive actions and responses (Timperley et al., 2007).

The responses of each teacher, and her students, had an impact on my practice as an adviser and researcher. When students were successful, I was relieved and pleased. I lived the classroom experience also. When teachers were motivated and actively took up ideas and shaped them for themselves, I was satisfied. When this happened it felt like successful professional learning. Advisers and facilitators of professional learning cannot **make** teachers act as a result of their input. For me, Bella and Jane’s responses affected the way the professional learning moved forward. When I saw Jane act on my suggestions and demonstrate them in her teaching, I was able to continue with the content and process I had anticipated. When Bella requested longer to learn and practice a specific strategy, I allowed that time. This research process has increased my awareness of the need to take account of teachers’ needs and to closely align the content and pace of professional learning to them.

The big question is: if I went back into each classroom now, would I see a re-shaped curriculum, effective teaching strategies and culturally responsive teachers? Would Bella and Jane have been able to influence other teachers in their schools? Has the teachers’ linguistic and cultural knowledge of their current students and families also been enhanced? To be sure of this I would need to return to the classroom of these teachers and look for evidence that the changes to their practice with culturally and linguistically diverse learners has been sustained.

4.4 Implications and conclusions

This research has enabled me to reflect on and understand effective elements of teacher professional learning and development. I now feel more confident to answer the question, ‘What is the most effective professional development for teachers of CLD students?’ I have listed below the assumptions that I (currently) hold about effective professional learning. These assumptions now underpin my facilitation with teachers of CLD learners. They are, of course, open to challenge.

- The use of student achievement data, and other diagnostic data, focuses and clarifies teacher expectations.
- Broadening the definition used to encapsulate all CLD learners, enables a widening of the teaching focus and an expansion of teaching strategies.
- Shared planning of units of work, with a focus on identifying and clarifying topic learning outcomes and language learning outcomes is critical. This enables teachers to use a backwards design to plan the specific, sequential steps needed by students to achieve the expected learning.
- Co-constructing of model texts enables teachers to understand the specific language features to be taught. This process seems to support teachers with the specific knowledge needed, and enables them to teach the identified components more explicitly.
- The modelling of lessons to teachers is valuable, but only when there is a specific observation purpose, when it occurs in the teachers own classroom setting, and when it is aligned with the expectation that the teacher would reciprocate.
- Culturally embedded facilitation which models and uses culturally responsive teaching approaches and resources is critical. Without this challenge by facilitators of professional learning, teachers will continue to use their own knowledge and experiences as a springboard for their teaching.

- Change in teaching practice is linked to change in teachers' understandings and beliefs. It is important therefore to introduce challenges and create dissonance.
- The pace of new information and learning needs to be carefully scaffolded to meet the needs of individual teachers.

In order to be effective as facilitators of professional learning, advisers should also be able to model culturally responsive teaching that includes and assumes CLD learners in their discussions and exemplars of classroom practice.

This research has enabled me to reflect on, and understand, effective teaching practice of culturally and linguistically diverse learners. I now feel more confident to answer the question, 'What is effective teaching for CLD learners?' I believe that effective teaching of CLD learners is similar to, but not the same as, effective teaching of all learners. A key addition must be culturally responsive teaching; teaching that is framed around 'knowing the learner'. To achieve this is more difficult than it seems. Effective teaching for CLD learners = effective teaching for all, plus culturally responsive teaching.

I have listed below the assumptions that I (currently) hold about effective teaching of, and learning by, CLD learners. These assumptions now underpin my facilitation of professional learning with teachers. These are, of course, open to challenge.

- It is possible for CLD students to make good progress in mainstream classes and they do not need to be in the lower bands of achievement.
- Teachers must know their learners and their families extremely well. This includes knowing where students are from, the language(s) they speak and the experiences they have had. Teachers need to use this information to activate links to learning. It involves a very explicit, planned approach to making connections to learners' worlds.

- Effective classroom teaching assumes that all students need to add ‘academic English proficiency’ to their repertoire of language skills, but not to diminish any part of students already held languages knowledge.
- Teachers need to provide a safe classroom environment where learning is the focus, where ideas are encouraged, where others are understood and valued.
- Teaching purpose and learning intentions must be clear and should include content and language objectives.
- Language, that is vocabulary and sentence grammar, needs to be explicitly taught. Teachers need to model and use the target language and students need to notice it. Quality discussion and attendance to language features is important. Annotation and deconstruction of text with their students is central.
- Well-prepared lessons, and well-designed tasks that move students towards understanding the overall learning goals in a sequential, ordered manner are critical.
- Language learning is enhanced and improved by engaging in a variety of well-constructed learning tasks that recycle and repeat language and concepts. The tasks need to be designed so that it is compulsory for students to engage in learning, including speaking, listening, reading and writing. Collaborative approaches using pairs and small groups are most valuable.
- Teachers need to be responsive to students’ ideas and feedback needs to be provided that enables students to check against their progress against the learning intentions. Students need feedback on their learning processes (meta-cognition) as well as specific language and learning and achievement.
- Data on student outcomes, both achievement outcomes and social outcomes, are critical for teachers to use as evidence of the effect of their teaching.

My belief is that effective teaching of CLD students is about ‘plus more.’ That is using strategies and approaches that work effectively for all learners, plus student

connections and the cultural responsiveness. Without this, the teaching may be good teaching, but it is not effective teaching for CLD students.

I doubt that there is a 'right way' to teach any particular group of learners, but there are certainly opportunities for learning to be more meaningful and relevant. In some classroom contexts, differences between students' worlds and teachers' worlds need to be acknowledged. Some teachers need to become more conscious of the process of making instructional and cultural connections to CLD learners' lives. If schools are to create environments that enable children to be themselves and to achieve to their full potential, the old attitude 'leave your culture and language at the school gate' must be discarded.

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Appendix 1: Permission letter to teachers



10 September 2006

Dear Primary School Teacher,

Scaffolding Teacher learning: Examining the professional development process of teachers with culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) learners.

Information for Participants

I am a researcher from the School of Professional Development: School Support Service at the Christchurch College of Education. I am currently enrolled in a Masters of Teaching and Learning at the Christchurch College of Education. The aim of my research is to put in place successful professional development that helps teachers identify, and improve, their teaching of culturally and linguistically diverse learners. It is expected that this project will enable a better understanding of the features of effective professional development with teachers of CLD students. The results of my research will be used in my role as an adviser to improve the professional development programme for teachers of diverse students.

As part of my research, you will be asked to participate in structured interviews and a professional development process designed to specifically meet your teaching needs. The interviews will take place at the beginning and end of a specific unit of work undertaken in term one this year. The professional development will occur for approximately a month, while you are teaching the unit of work. Classroom visits and observations will take place each time the unit is being taught, 3-4 times each week. The same process will be repeated in term two with a new unit of work. There will be 3 days of teacher release time available each term for the relevant professional development.

No findings that could identify you or your school will be published. A pseudonym/code will be used for all reference to the data and all data will be kept in a secure, locked place. All information will remain strictly confidential. Participation in the research project is entirely voluntary and you can withdraw at any time. Transcripts will be provided to you to confirm as an accurate record any recorded data, and copies of the research will be provided to you and the principal/Board of Trustees.

The Christchurch College of Education Ethics Committee has reviewed and approved this study.

Complaints Procedure

The College requires that all participants be informed that if they have any complaint concerning the manner in which a research project is conducted, it may be given to the researcher, or, if an independent person is preferred, to:

The Chair
Ethical Clearance Committee
Christchurch College of Education
P O Box 31-065
Christchurch
Phone: (03) 345 8390

Please contact me if you have any other queries or concerns about the project. My contact details are given below.

Thank you.

(Signature)

Gaylene Price
School Support Services
Christchurch College of Education
Phone: (03) 349 1373
Email: gaylene.price@cce.ac.nz

(Now: gaylene.price@canterbury.ac.nz)

Appendix 2: Consent form for teachers



Declaration of Consent

I consent to participate in the project, **Scaffolding teacher learning: Examining the professional development process of teachers with culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) learners.**

I have read and understood the information provided to me concerning the research project and what will be required of me as a participant in the project.

I understand that the information I provide to the researcher will be treated as confidential and that no findings that could identify either me or my school will be published.

I understand that my participation in the project is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the project at any time without incurring any penalty.

Name: _____ Date: _____

Signature: _____

Appendix 3: Modelling book /A4Art

Darragh has created ^{has made the shape} her piece out of expanding foam and beads. She has selected ^{mostly primary} predominantly a green and orange ^{set of colours} palette from her materials.

The artist has displayed her work on the wall. She has deliberately chosen this stark, ^{blank bare barren} clean background to ^{allow / let / make} enable her piece to stand out.

Darragh likes to gather every day materials and arrange them in an unusual way.

This work means ...

Uses formal words

Artists collect...

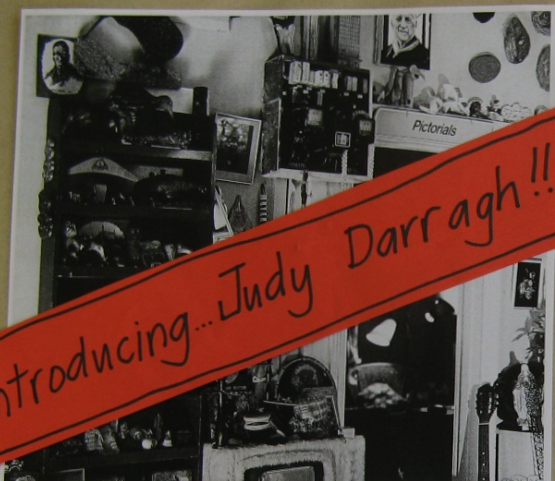
Items that are around them in people's every day life, and in their environment eg. leaves, rocks, lollies, dolls etc. Also, the artist is a maker of new objects or collections of objects.

because ...

They arrange them differently - this is going to be art!

The object has value for them or their culture. The purpose is to change the *function* of the objects by adding, taking away, enlarging, reducing etc then displaying them in a public setting as something new.

A major **difference** between an **artist** collecting materials for art and a **collector** gathering their items is that the artist is making **fun** of it and the collector is **deadly serious**!



Introducing... Judy Darragh!!

The way she treats the objects changes them from their every-day purpose to art.

Kitsch is...

bad taste art.

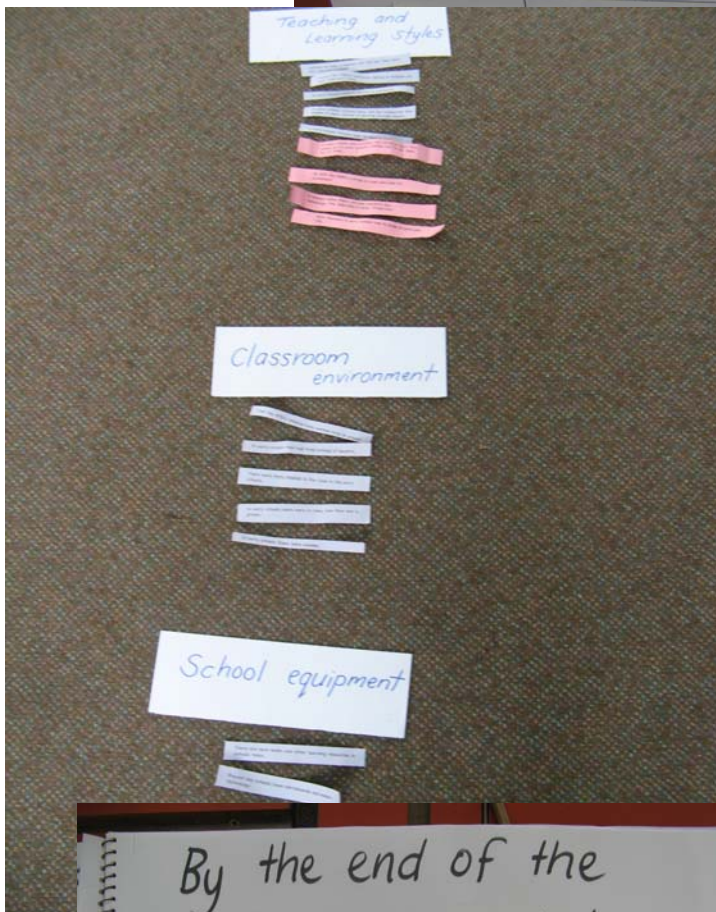
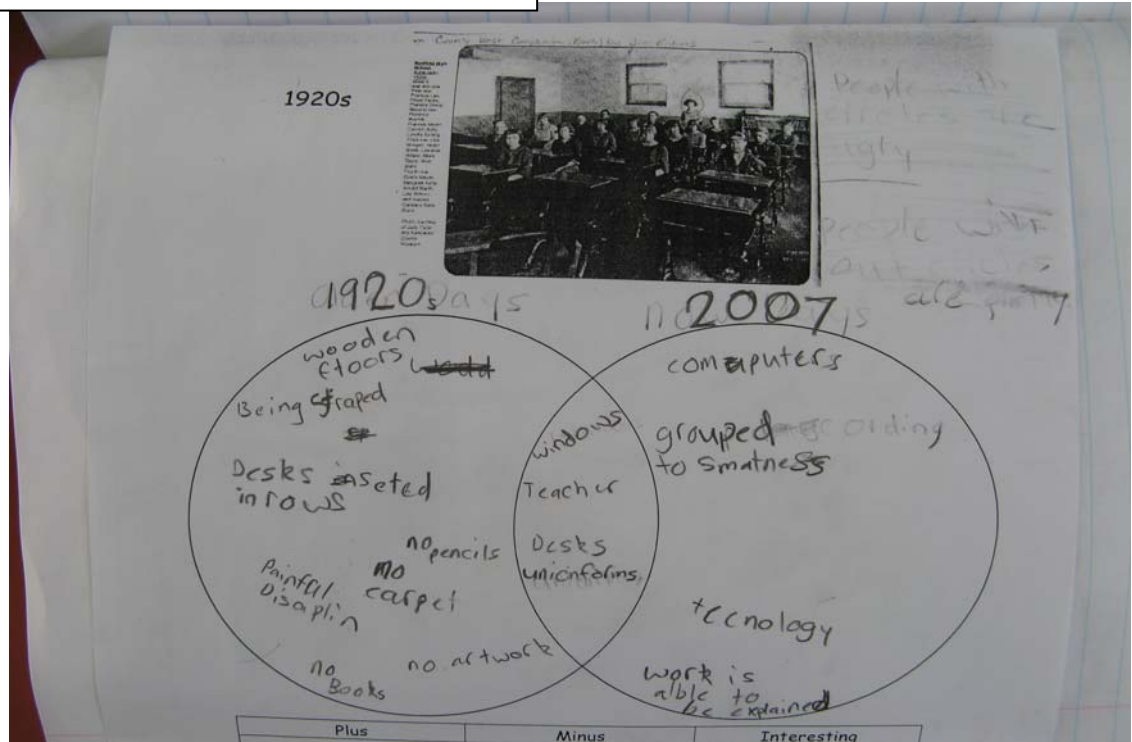
Kitsch is... a plastic flower's faded colouring

(not beautiful)

Darragh has arranged her collection of easy-to-find, bad taste objects in her home.

She is making a statement about how kiwi's live, and what we value as beautiful in our homes. She is making fun of it by cramming the room full to overflowing with 'junk'. Kitsch is the opposite to fine Art.

Appendix 3: Modelling book /The past 100 Years

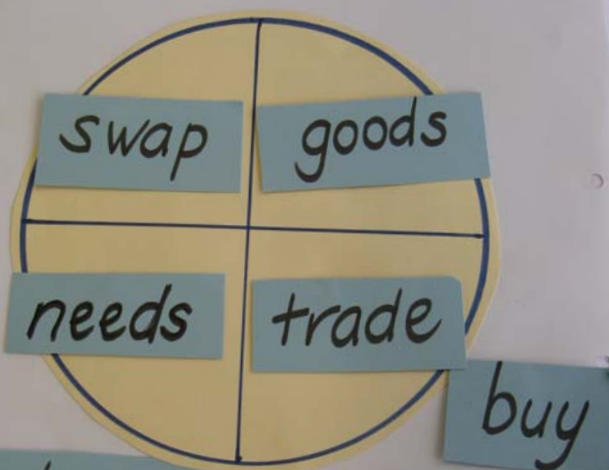


Introduction	
1900's	In the 1900's the colony of New Zealand was strongly British. Fifty percent of all people lived in the four main towns. The very first trams and cars arrived but still people mostly walked because public transport was very costly.
1920's	Just as the 1920's started people needed hope as 60,000 New Zealand soldiers had been killed in World War 1 and 5,515 had died of influenza. The supply of electricity had just begun with electric light and electric ovens making life a bit easier. Cars were also becoming common. Men wore top hats.
1940's	It was now the decade of World War 2. American soldiers were stationed in New Zealand to help protect us, with a camp of 20,000 soldiers. Petrol was rationed and it was almost impossible to buy tyres. News of the war was heard at the movies
1960's	Television began in this decade and helped change the world. All transport improved and the first aeroplane flew into Auckland. 51 people died in a terrible disaster when the Wahine ship sank in Wellington harbour. Sport was a very big part of New Zealand.
1980's	There were many violent protests because of South Africa's apartheid rules. In 1985 the Rainbow Warrior, a Greenpeace ship, was blown up causing the death of one crew member.
Conclusion	

By the end of the work you need to explain which decade you would prefer to live in (and why.)

Appendix 3: Modelling book/Making Ends Meet

Can you make a sentence?



exchange

wants

barter

resources

sell

services

'Making Ends Meet' in Mumbai, India

Dropada Syamrao <i>seller</i> street hawker	Sold veges + fruit. - moved around
Syamji Patel waste seller	- Collects rubbish - sells it - recycling
Shankar Kadam dhaba-wallah	- collected hot food and put on a cart. (Over 100,000)
Nirwal Chaudhari immigrant worker	- worked as a ^{workers} builder - lived on the street
Shyama Pada Awon jeweller	- He is self-employed - Employs 10 workers - Silver and gold
Bhimrao Nana Jankar police sub-inspector	- 28 years of work - banned rickshaws - slave labour?

- exploitation -

(Our texts. Look at the difference)

hard to imagine our world without money isn't it?

Long ago there was no money so people traded and bartered for goods and wants. A good hunter might trade 10 rabbits for getting some to fix their roof. Salt was hard to find so maybe they could use that as money. In other countries they used beads, bronze or silver as coins. Pieces of metal were used as coins by weighing.

hard to imagine our world without money? Isn't it?

Long ago there is no coin and no such a thing as money. They get some needs by trading and bartering. Some jobs and skill can be like money. Like a good hunter can trade 10 rabbit with fixing some countries they trade with barter salt and good trading and bartering get good things. Trading both people have to have what they want. In other countries they use gold and silver money.

appears if you have things to trade but no one want it? ✓

appears if the trading doesn't go well? ✓

(Got rid)



(Made a Met. Release)

It's Hard to Imagine our world without money. Isn't it?

Long ago there was no coins and no such thing as money. People had to trade or barter for their needs and wants. A good cook could trade 10 muffins to a painter so the painter would paint their house. Salt was hard to find, people came to use salt like money to flavour their foods.

Eventually some countries used beads, bronze, gold or silver metal for money.

They were our first coins!

It's hard to imagine our world without money. Isn't it?

Long time ago there were no such thing as money. People got goods by trading or bartering.

Jobs could be a source of money if the person is skilled. Many years ago salt was very valuable and hard to find. For successful to take place, each other must agree with what they want to trade. Years later other countries have developed a form of money such as beads, bronze, golden, silver metal and gold. Jane, Annie, Isabelle

Appendix 3: Modelling book/Making Ends Meet

We are learning to...

find the difference between 'needs' and 'wants'.

We'll know we've achieved this...

- when we have defined 'needs' and 'wants'
- when we have identified our own 'needs' and 'wants'

I need a _____ so
I can.....

Room 13's
Needs and Wants

water ✓✓✓✓✓	computer game ✓
food (healthy) ✓✓✓✓✓	laptop ✓
→ vitamins ✓	books ✓
oxygen ✓✓✓✓	DVD's ✓✓✓✓✓
trees	psp ✓✓✓✓✓
house ✓	music ✓
family ✓	T.V. ✓✓✓
School (teacher) ✓	x box ✓
to learn ✓	i pod ✓
blood	a pet (dog) ✓
money	toys ✓
friends	games ✓
clothes →	jewellery
	spa
	cellphone
	video
	junk food
	sweets ✓

If you could choose only one of the wants, which would it be?

Do you agree? Why or why not?

Some water
A need is something that is necessary to have.

an orange (healthy food)
a book
a computer game

A want is something you would like to have.

Needs ^{things we} - need to live

- a need is s. thing you have to have.
- Compulsory

Wants

- Something you can live without but it's optional
- You think you need it, but you don't

Appendix 4: Question framework for the semi-structured interview

Teacher profile:

- Years teaching
- Previous schooling
- Work with ESOL students

1. Approaches to teaching

What are some of your key beliefs about teaching?

Where do you get your teaching ideas from?

What role do others in the school or outside the school play in your teaching?

Who do you work most closely with?

2. Professional Development preferences

What sort of PD have you been involved in?

What sort of PD do you prefer and why?

Can you describe the impact any of the PD has had on your class teaching?

What do you see as the role of (Education Plus) advisers in supporting your teaching?

3. EAL info

Please tell me about the culturally diverse students in your class.

How would you describe your approach to teaching EAL learners?

Are there any teaching ideas or strategies you use specifically with EAL students that work well?

Where/how did you learn about teaching EAL?

If you had to construct principles of effective teaching – what would these be?

What is your theory of ESOL teaching and how ESOL learners should learn?

Is there any difference between the ideals of EAL teaching and the reality for you with your own students?

Look at the 'Planning for Content and Language Learning Across the Curriculum' information. Would these principles fit with your current teaching approach? How?

What contact do you have with your ESOL students' families?

What contact do you have with ESOL or other teacher specialists for your ESOL students? (RTLB, RT Lit, RR...)

Thank you for your time. Gaylene Price

Appendix 5: Hypothetical Classroom Vignette (Draft)

Please read the following description of a typical year 5 classroom with a small number of students from diverse language backgrounds. The scenario is fictional, but your responses are intended to provide an insight into ideas and strategies when working with ESOL learners. (Answers may be in brief form with bullet points.)

You have a year 5 class with 29 students. Included in the class are 7 students from a range of backgrounds. The student profiles are:

Jonko (girl): strong knowledge of Korean, fluent in English, been in a NZ school 3 years. (International Fee Paying student)

Hee Soo (boy): strong knowledge of Korean, beginner English, been in a NZ school 6 months. (International Fee Paying student)

Sina (girl): NZ born, Samoan spoken at home, good oral English, but struggling with academic writing.

Maria (girl): NZ born English spoken at home, low achievement in spoken and written English. Parents speak Samoan at home.

Hiran (boy): Born in India, very fluent Hindi, been in NZ 4 years, average level of achievement.

Mutsa (girl): Born in Zimbabwe, very fluent Shona language, been in NZ 9 months, high levels of achievement

Mohammed (boy) Born in Somalia, no previous schooling, been in NZ 18 months, average level of achievement. Family arrived in NZ at Mangere Reception Centre with refugee status.

What extra information/data would you want about each of these students? What differences do you expect for these learners, if any, in their learning pathway?

As the classroom teacher, you are keen for the EAL students to mix with as many other students as possible. Some students are reluctant to participate or shy and prefer to work independently. Sina and Maria work together a lot and talk to each other in Samoan.

(a) What is your response to the EAL students working together, or to their lack of participation? (b) What sort of approaches could you use to get the students mixing with others in the classroom?

In your classroom Reading programme, the 7 EAL children fit into 3 of different reading groups. However, you notice some similar patterns of achievement in reading when using Running Records to assess student progress. Students show decoding levels from 95-98% accuracy on the text chosen for the level of the reading group, but they are not able to answer the set comprehension questions in the assessment kit.

What teaching decisions would you make to support these students and make it easier for your reading programme?

The class are completing an inquiry of 'Wild World.' The immersion lasted for three weeks and involved a trip to Orana Park to learn about:

- the appearance and behaviour of a range of animals,
- animals' natural habitats and
- Orana Park's internationally recognised breeding programme.

Achievement Objectives from Science have provided the curriculum focus. The writing focus requires students to write factual information in the form of an information report. The second phase of the unit has involved students' in an individual inquiry based on some in-depth questions they developed.

You are finding the EAL learners very hard to engage. They have been copying information from the internet, but have not summarised it well. They have relied on their peers and some of the other children in the class do not want to help any more. Despite making yourself available for support, the ESOL learners have not

approached you. As a consequence, few of the ESOL learners are really understanding the key concepts or meeting your expectations.

If you want these ESOL students to achieve at the top level in the class with this inquiry what sort of teaching strategies could you have used? Tick those that you have personally used in your own classroom this year.

THANK YOU! Gaylene Price UC Education Plus

Do you have any comments about this case study vignette?

Teachers Observation Framework: for Language and Culture (TOF:LaC) (DRAFT) Observer _____
 School _____ Teacher _____
 Date/Time _____ Year level _____
 Topic _____ Number of observed lessons _____

NB: Complete this Teachers Observation Framework by thinking about teaching culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Tick the number that best reflects evidence at the end of the selected teaching period. Provide as many observed specific examples as possible for the criteria and record some comments. Write n/a if the indicator is not relevant or not applicable. Remember: you may not see all of the elements in any given lesson, but would over a series of lessons.

Preparation/Planning - Examine the unit plan/teaching plan

• Data and/or achievement information shows the current level of need and rationale for the unit	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 3 2 1 0 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
• Content or topic objectives are worthwhile and are aligned to New Zealand/school curriculum	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 3 2 1 0 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
• There are clearly written language learning outcomes, including vocabulary and sentence structures needed to participate in the unit	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 3 2 1 0 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
• Planning reflects opportunities for learners' to use their prior cultural knowledge and experiences	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 3 2 1 0 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
• Age-appropriate content and materials are selected for all learners	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 3 2 1 0 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
• Resources which support learning in L1 are provided	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 3 2 1 0 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

	Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	3	<input type="checkbox"/>	2	<input type="checkbox"/>	1	<input type="checkbox"/>	0
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Comments

In-class teaching Observation - Principle 1: Knowing the Learner

• Explicit links are made to previous shared teaching experiences/past learning/curriculum	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	3	<input type="checkbox"/>	2	<input type="checkbox"/>	1	<input type="checkbox"/>	0
• Explicit connections are made to learners' prior knowledge such as the learners' family, cultural and/or schooling backgrounds	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	3	<input type="checkbox"/>	2	<input type="checkbox"/>	1	<input type="checkbox"/>	0
• Explicit links to other languages are provided	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	3	<input type="checkbox"/>	2	<input type="checkbox"/>	1	<input type="checkbox"/>	0
• The teaching sequence uses approaches that build on learners' prior knowledge	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	3	<input type="checkbox"/>	2	<input type="checkbox"/>	1	<input type="checkbox"/>	0

Comments

Principle 2: Identify the learning outcomes including the language demands of the teaching and learning.

• There are clearly defined content/topic objectives (written) that are shared or developed with learners, including learning intentions/success criteria	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	3	<input type="checkbox"/>	2	<input type="checkbox"/>	1	<input type="checkbox"/>	0
• There are clearly defined language objectives (written) that are shared or developed with learners, including learning intentions/success criteria	Highly Not Evident				Somewhat		Evident		

	Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
• The language (vocabulary and sentence structures) needed to complete tasks are made explicit to learners	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
• Teacher knowledge of the language demands of texts/tasks are apparent	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0

Comments

Principle 3: Help students achieve the same explicit learning outcomes using differentiated levels of support

• The teacher's language and instructions are comprehensible to all learners	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
• A range of collaborative learning approaches that encourage oral language are used (e.g. think/pair/share, small group, jigsaw tasks).	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
• All learners are actively involved in (differentiated) tasks that achieve the learning intentions. Explain how.	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
• Opportunities are provided for individualised support if needed - e.g. working at a different rate, ESOL teacher support, peer support	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0

Comments

Principle 4: Begin with context-embedded tasks which make the abstract concrete.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A wide range of resources and/or supplementary materials are used to provide a context for learning (e.g. photographs, diagrams, realia, experiences, demonstrations). List those observed. 	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Scaffolding is provided which enables learners to participate in tasks and/or link learning to real life (graphic organisers, study guides, text outlines, peer models). List those observed. 	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0

Comments

Principle 5: Provide multiple opportunities for authentic language use with a focus on learners using academic language.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using academic language is essential for engaging in the learning task(s). (List examples of the language output used by learners). 	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There are multiple opportunities for learners to use the academic language structures. (List the opportunities provided). 	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Opportunities are provided for answering questions at a variety of levels (not just recall) 	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0

Comments

Principle 6: Ensure a balance between receptive and productive language.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learners are able to listen and/or read key information and ideas (from the teacher/peer/audio..) 	Highly Not Somewhat
---	---------------------------

	Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
• Learners are able to use target language and ideas (with teacher/peers..) in spoken form and/or written form	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
• The teacher elicits (elaborated) responses (output) from the learners	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
• The teacher facilitates, but does not dominate, the talk time	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0

Comments

Reflection/Evaluation

Principle 7: Include opportunities for monitoring and self-evaluation

• There are opportunities for learners to reflect and monitor their own learning	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
• The teacher teaches strategies and processes for learning and there are opportunities for metacognition (learners to think about and discuss how they are learning)	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 0
• Reference is made back to the learning objectives or purpose during the lesson	Highly Not Evident Evident

	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	0 <input type="checkbox"/>
• Feedback from teachers to learners is related to the learning objective	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	Somewhat 2 <input type="checkbox"/>	Evident 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	0 <input type="checkbox"/>
• Learners have time to respond to teacher/peer feedback	Highly Not Evident Evident 4 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	Somewhat 2 <input type="checkbox"/>	Evident 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	0 <input type="checkbox"/>

Comments